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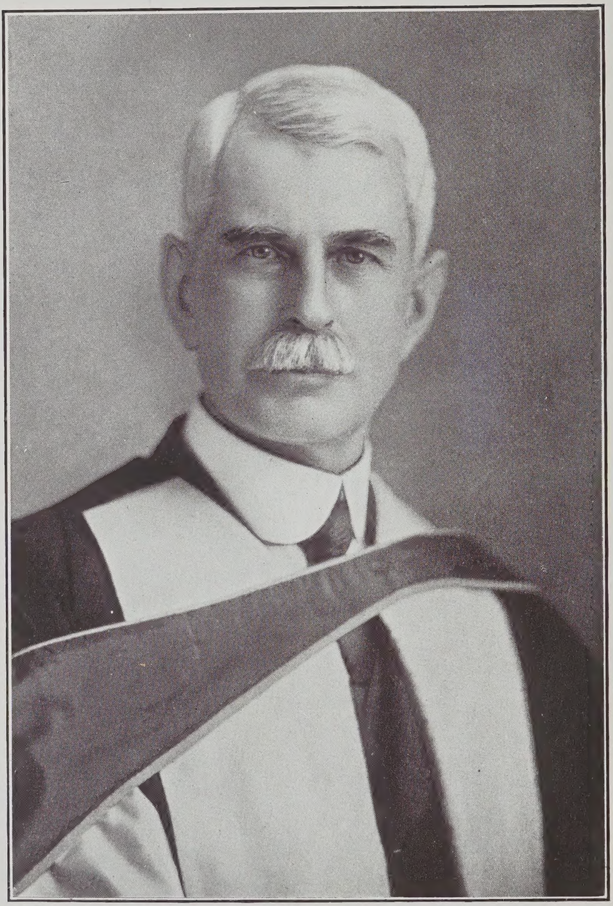

COL. ALEXANDER FRASER, L.L.D., A.D.C.
PRESIDENT OF THE EMPIRE CLUB OF CANADA, 1927

EMPIRE CLUB
OF
CANADA

ADDRESSES DELIVERED TO THE MEMBERS DURING THE YEAR 1927

Twenty-fifth Year of Issue

GOD SAVE THE KING

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THE ROYAL COLONIAL INSTITUTE
AND
THE EMPIRE CLUB OF CANADA

The Royal Colonial Institute and the Empire Club of Canada are affiliated with a view to promote mutually the object for which both were founded, namely, the Unity of the Empire. Each extends to visitors and members vouched for by the other the usual courtesies on arrival in London or Toronto.

OFFICERS AND COMMITTEE

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Dr. D. J. Goggin
Representing the Past-Presidents.

INTRODUCTION

The passing of sixty years since the three provinces—Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick—federated as the Dominion of Canada was fittingly recognized by the Empire Club by the delivery of Addresses of special interest in connection with the general celebration of the diamond jubilee of the Dominion. The Club also participated in the official celebration held on the first of July in Toronto, contributing to the historical pageant a representation of Britannia and the various parts of the British Empire, territorially displayed.

The Addresses, reproduced in this volume, form a series of "Links of Empire", designed to recall to mind and to emphasize the importance of the moral and intellectual, as well as of the constitutional and material advantages for which we are indebted to the Motherland. All of these Addresses are of interest and are commended to the thoughtful perusal of the members. Special attention is directed to a few of the Addresses, not because they are considered to possess merit superior to the others, but because they were particularly opportune when delivered, and will in time to come be a valuable source of reference for Empire Study.

Dean Thorson, in his Address, "The Building of a Nation," touches on the distinction between the legal position occupied by Canada as a member of the Empire, and the position to which she is attaining therein, by the gradual development of constitutional conventions which have behind them political sanctions equal in force though different in kind, to the sanctions of the law. This principle he applies with clearness and ability to the findings of the recent Imperial Conference.

The fine impression made by the Dean of Windsor will be long remembered. "You are those" (referring to members of the Club), "who *definitely* value connection with the Old Country. . . . . Where I think the real value is, is that that connection preserves the tradition of English life as a living tradition in your national life." These two vital sentences give the key-note of a charming and earnest address, the force of which was apparent. The Dean accompanied the Windsor and Westminster Choir on a tour through Canada.

The Address on "Appeals to the Privy Council" by the Honourable Mr. Justice Riddell, contains a wealth of detail and annotation so cogently utilized as to render it of exceptional value at a time when Canadians are invited to consider the subject from various points of view.

Sir Alan Aylesworth treats the important subject of "The Crown" with that breadth of view which has ever characterized the ex-Minister of Justice. When "political sanctions" press "statutory sanctions" forward, with a tendency to emphasize the status of the Crown as the supreme constitutional link of Empire, Sir Alan's Address is as timely as it is illuminating and comprehensive.

The world at large, but very specially the British Empire, are indebted to a greater degree than is commonly realized to the moral and spiritual influences radiating from the Homeland. The Rev. Dr. Richard Roberts has done well in calling attention, and doing so with such masterly exposition, to the dominating influences for good that have meant so much for citizens of the Empire, and are so well-worth cherishing as a priceless inheritance.

Of the Address delivered by the Prime Minister of Great Britain, the Right Honourable Stanley Baldwin, it has been said, and is repeated here, that it is an appeal to the best instincts of his fellow-men, to practise honourable dealing; to cherish high ideals, and to carry into public life the finest qualities characteristic of the British people.

Professor Caldwell's personal knowledge of conditions in mid-Europe gives to his Address exceptional importance when a spirit of unrest is abroad in the countries with which he deals. Dr. Caldwell speaks with particular authority.

The recent publication of a selection from the speeches of the Prince of Wales furnishes to the discerning reader material of rare interest. From an Imperial point of view, and having regard to its constitutional aspect, the speech delivered to us in Toronto and published *in extenso* in our volume for 1919, is probably the most important in the collection, though indeed, each speech has its own distinctive message. His Royal Highness is revealed, in this book, as a marvellously apt ambassador of Empire, and the perusal of the Speeches is respectfully suggested to the members of the Club.

Several excellent volumes on Imperial affairs have appeared during the year. Indeed the literary output for 1927 is remarkable both for its volume and the rich quality and variety of its subject-matter, an evidence that public interest is keeping pace with the remarkable material development noticeable of late within the British Empire.

The special objects for the furthering of which the Empire Club was established twenty five years ago, namely,—the disseminating of knowledge of Imperial affairs to the Canadian public, has been well kept in view during the year that has just closed. It is felt by the Club that it has an important place to fill in the public life of this Dominion, and it shall be its best effort in the future to bring into practical relationship Canadian interests with the interests of the Empire in all its constituent parts so that by the spreading of knowledge and well-founded information, the mutual interests of all concerned may be furthered and perpetuated.

ALEXANDER FRASER,
Chairman, Editorial Committee.

HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS, THE PRINCE OF WALES:

"A united Empire depends to a great extent on constant interchange of thought, and still more on personal intercourse and consultation among the statesmen of the Dominions."—Speeches, page 118.

INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION

An Address by W. A. RIDDELL, M.A., Ph.D.
Canadian Advisory Officer at Geneva.

7th January, 1927.

The President, Colonel Kirkpatrick, introduced the Speaker, who said in part:—I esteem it a great honor to be asked to address this club, for no Club in Canada could offer greater inspiration to any returning Canadian. Thinking of my subject, our minds naturally turn to Geneva, the political centre of the world, the fountain-head of International Cooperation. Here come foreign ministers and diplomats and the chancellors of the nations. Here comes the military experts, the legal authorities, the economists, the technicians on opium, on transport, on international relations, and on many other questions. Here come Bergman and Einstein to promote intellectual cooperation; here come Briand and Chamberlain and Streseman and Benes, and a score of other foreign ministers, with the opportunity of settling problems that might otherwise lead to war. What London is to our Empire relations, Geneva is to International cooperation.

The Canadian Government, from the very beginning realized the importance of Geneva. Two years ago they accredited a permanent representative there, and it was my good fortune to have been chosen as Advisory Officer. Our obligations under the Treaty of Peace imply that we shall be represented by delegations at the Assembly of the League, at the International Labour Conferences, both of which meet annually, and at the many conferences that are held from time to time. Our office at Geneva was set up in order to give continuity to the work there. The French Government at last year's Assembly had a delegation of 31, and often the British Government has a delegation of at least half that number. So you may realize how seriously these Governments take the work, how closely they follow it, and how handicapped the Canadian delegation would be if it had not the clerical assistance which our office affords. Our office furnishes full information on Canada, and serves as headquarters for Canadians visiting Geneva who are interested in all problems of international co-operation.

From the beginning Canada has had a very excellent record at Geneva. You probably remember the first bombshell we threw into the gathering, when our delegation proposed that Article 10 should be struck out. We followed that up for four years with delegations representing the governments of all our leading Provinces in Canada, always pressing that they should have an interpretation of that Article. Naturally the European countries tried to shelve it, but we succeeded in getting a declaration that was satisfying to Canada. I would like to refer to the other things in which Canada has taken an active part. I rather think that our more or less complex federal imperial constitution has made Canadians proficient in constitutional matters. I remember that at Washington, where I had the honor of representing this Province at the first International Labor Conference, Mr. Rowell was on the Committee of Admission of Members. He brought in a minority report to which all the other members of the Committee were opposed; yet he spoke to his report with such effect, that the Conference almost to a man supported that minority report. (Applause)

Again in 1921, at Geneva, certain European countries, seeing that the British Empire would have three permanent seats on the International Labor Conference because Great Britain and India and Canada were among the eight states of chief industrial importance, tried to shut us out by moving an amendment that only the great powers should have seats on the governing body, but although in Committee we had been defeated by

20 to 4, when it came to the Plenary Conference we found we had something over 80 votes for us, some 5 or 6 against us, and probably as many abstentions. (Applause). Thus from time to time our men have been able successfully to defend our interests.

Canada has always taken a prominent part in the social and humanitarian work of the League. We have twice had the honor of having the Presidency of the Fifth Committee, dealing with precedence. Canadians have never tired of trying to impress Europeans in the League that the only method, or the best method, the method that we had tried out with success,—that of Arbitration and Conciliation—was the method to which they should turn their attention far more than to arms. We have shown at different Assemblies that it was exceedingly necessary, if Europe and the world should be at peace, that Arbitration must play the greater part. We have shown that we had a hundred years of peace as a result of this spirit, along a frontier of 4,000 miles. This has all had its effect. I believe the Locarno Treaty and the whole proposal of Arbitration is gaining ground, and the number of treaties that are multiplying almost monthly, owe much to the representations made by the delegations from Canada.

Canada has taken a prominent part with some success, in the economic work of the League. At the end of the War, two main problems confronted us. One was the need of some organization to prevent war; the other was international, economic co-operation the value of which had been demonstrated by The Allies during the War; first among the members of the British Empire, and later by the Inter-Allied Commission.

The last time I was in Canada I tried to show that the League was under a great debt to the British Empire for those fundamental principles of co-operation upon which it was based; those principles of partnerships, of equality, of legislative autonomy which had been developed in Canada and other British Dominions and which had been taken over from the British Empire into the League of Nations. In fact I made bold to state that Canada had made the British Empire, and the British Empire had made the League of Nations; and I have since found no reason to change my opinion. (Hear, hear and applause).

When international co-operation received such attention at the end of the War, it is not surprising that the Allies summoned an Economic Conference at Brussels for the rehabilitation of Europe, financially and economically. It is perfectly true that that conference was looked upon by many at that time as a body that merely met and passed resolutions which were sound in themselves, but of little practical value. But go back over history since that time, especially the history of Europe as well as other parts of the world, and you will find that the resolutions at Brussels did make a profound impression; that they have had an influence on the finances of many countries. That Conference pointed out that it was essential to balance the budgets; it was a commonplace. It pointed out that printing presses must be stopped; yes, we say, a commonplace. But when I went to Europe in 1920 many people seemed to think that about all that was necessary was to continue the printing of money to ensure prosperity. To-day we have all accepted the gold standard; but at that time many of the leading men of different countries had not accepted it, and the great mass of the people, who had had a certain measure of prosperity during the War, due to borrowings and the printing of money, had to be convinced. The Brussels Conference was called to help to convince them, as Conferences are often called to create a sound public opinion. There has been marked progress, and many countries have now got back to a gold basis. The resolutions of the Brussels Conference have been put into effect in Austria and Hungary with success. (Hear, hear).

In 1921 we had a Passport Conference, and you will note that the passport used in Canada was decided on at Geneva—and it may be interesting to note that Geneva has systematized the passport throughout the world.

After the War certain countries in Europe put up great barriers against freedom of trade, not always in the form of tariffs, but by certain red-tape methods that hindered the transit of goods from one country to another. In 1923 the League called a Conference on the simplification of customs formalities. It aimed at publicity. For instance, countries were frequently changing their laws and regulations, and traders did not know anything about those until their goods were upon the line at the frontier and were held up for many months. If the traders had known the formalities they might never have shipped the goods. That Conference advocated the necessity of giving due publicity to customs formalities, the simplifying of them, the expediting of shipment of goods, and the speedy handling of them at the frontiers. At all those Conferences the nations are together; that each man sits there with powers from his Government, which is to all intents and purposes a sovereign state for that Conference; but they must arrive at an agreement. There is no use in passing a convention unless the great majority of people are in favor of it. You must get as much unanimity as possible. If certain countries say, "We are not objecting, but we will never ratify it," you have to reconsider in order to get a new plan and formula that is more moderate, or that meets that need better. So that at Geneva the art of compromise is a real art, essential to progress in the largest and fullest way.

In the same year we had a convention drawn up with regard to commercial arbitration clauses in contracts. That was in order to avoid needless litigation, and this has been successful in bringing about better conditions.

It was my pleasure last year to sit on another Passport Conference, dealing with passports for people coming into this country. So long as we have a guarantee that if it is necessary for them to be deported to the country that issued their passport they will take them back,—that is practically the only reason why we want people coming to our shores to have a passport. If they are tourists we do not require it, and yet naturally the passport was the best thing in order to protect us. We supported it to that extent. I could take a much broader view than most of the men in the Conference, but we were specially interested in transit visas. Many of our immigrants come across a number of countries to get here; the cost of transit visas was great, there also was the necessity of getting them before the immigrants were able to sail. Substantial progress was made to place the transit visas put upon a proper basis.

Probably the most important work in the economic field that the League has undertaken will take place at the Economic Conference which is to be held this year. The Committee has been working for a considerable time on it. While there are many things that could be discussed at a world economic conference, there are only a certain number that it would be wise, in the present state of international co-operation, to discuss. Canada wished to have representation on that committee and secured it. The fact is that Canada's economic importance makes it necessary for the League to give full place to Canadians.

The proposed Conference will deal in general with the world economic position, and will discuss many of the most difficult questions as to economic tendencies which affect the peace of the world. Some countries will say that those questions involve immigration and raw materials; some even going so far as to suggest the pooling of raw materials. I mention this so that you may see some of the problems that face a country with great resources and vast spaces in an international centre like Geneva. For instance, when the question of the agenda came up in the conference, the representative of Italy said that great wars were due to deep-seated causes which must be remedied. He said there were great economic forces such as the forces of population and the necessity of raw materials, and that all those problems were linked together, and formed a living organ. It had been felt that the world was not ripe for dealing with those questions, but it is likey they may come up in the Conference. You can understand how necessary it is, from a Canadian point of view, to follow developments along that line, and I need not stress it.

Under the heading of Commerce the Conference will discuss the liberty of trade; customs tariff and commercial treaties; indirect methods of protecting national commerce, and shipping. Under Industry the situation of the principal industries, the nature of their present difficulties, and the possibilities of international action will be dealt with.

Under Agriculture an attempt will be made to compare the present with the pre-war situation, and to canvass the possibilities of international action with regard to purchasers' and consumers' co-operation. All of those questions are of interest to Canada. That dealing with Agriculture is one of vital importance to Canada, which has made very considerable progress already in that field. Special attention will be given to commerce and tariff policies, especially as they affect Europe. In my judgment, this economic conference grew largely out of the European situation. To-day Europe feels that she is greatly handicapped in world competition. I discern that feeling in the governing body of the Labor Office where you meet European employers and European labourers. On the other hand, Europe feels that she is not going forward as she ought to go. A recent publication of the League has shown that she has only progressed about 32% in values since 1913, whereas Overseas countries have produced to a much greater extent. For instance, Canada has increased 307%,—the greatest of any country except British Malaya. Japan comes next with 288% of an increase, and I think New Zealand is third with 251%; the United States shows 198%, and Australia about the same. That is, the whole increase in export trade is moving to the New World and to countries outside of Europe, and that fact is, attracting much attention and no little concern in Europe. No doubt some leaders have in mind the making of Europe almost into one block as far as trade is concerned; to reduce tariffs so that Europe may, as far as possible, become an economic unit.

Now I might refer to some of the financial work of the League, in the rehabilitation of Austria and Hungary, in the settlement of refugees in Greece and Bulgaria. Many of you are as familiar as myself with the situation of Austria after the War. In 1922 she was becoming almost a public charge. Business men had poured probably $200,000,000 into that country in buying her exchange, in advances on goods for which there was no prospect of return. In 1922 Austria was in a more serious position than at the end of the War. The principles that were worked out at Brussels were then applied, and last year the situation was cleared up, so that the whole system of rehabilitation was practically considered complete. The League withdrew her supervision of the finances, and practically of the legislation of that country, as well, and Hungary is an illustration of the same financial assistance given by the League.

Greece was in a difficult position to some extent. At the end of the War she found herself with about 1,000,000 refugees on her hands. True, she had certain territories in which to settle them, but she had not the money or organization or leadership necessary for re-establishing those people. In a very short period the League undertook to supervise the expenditure of a loan, thereby making it possible for her to secure a loan. Already some 750,000 people have been established on the land. (Applause).

I may add that Canada in a voluntary way has done much for the refugees in Greece. In a big meeting I attended in Geneva where slides were shown on a screen in many of the huts distributing food to the children there were the names of Canadian towns or the name of Canada.

Bulgaria is now in a somewhat similar situation. You heard about the trouble between Greece and Bulgaria last summer. Part of that was due to the fact that in Bulgaria there are many dispossessed people who after the War of 1912 lost their land, which went to their neighbors, and they had to come into the territory with Bulgaria added. Then after the World War Bulgaria was left in a condition of unrest. Probably there are at present 120,000 homeless people in Bulgaria who have caused no end of trouble. It has been thought well to establish those people on land equivalent to the lands that had been taken from them. I understand that a loan is being floated, some of it in New York, to raise $11,000,000 for this purpose. The League has looked over the prospect, and will control the expenditure to a large extent, and no doubt the same result will follow as in the case of Greece.

Now, I would like to speak of international cooperation in the matter of labor at Geneva. For a time I was closely associated with that work. The plan is to hold a conference with regard to labor standards; the protection of women and children; accident compensation, etc. Already some 23 conventions have been passed and referred to different governments. Sixteen of those have been considered already by the the Parliament of Canada. Eight have been referred to the Provinces as coming within provincial jurisdiction; four have been ratified by the Federal Government, and two others are being considered at present. The other two required more or less joint action on the part of the Provinces and the Dominion.

When I was here three years ago I tried to get the Provinces of Canada to take some action with regard to the conventions that fell within their sphere. I felt and still feel that Canada has high industrial standards, but we are not getting credit for them in probably one of the best ways to advertise our high standards, through the League of Nations channels. As far as the records show, which are published monthly and sent throughout the world in different languages, in many things we are still away behind, when as a matter of fact, if we would take action, especially in our provinces, we might be almost right in the front, the place where we ought to be. That is the way I look at this subject from a business standpoint. We are selling our goods to-day in 56 countries of the world and in 29 dependencies. We are tied up all the world around. We want it known, and it is a good thing to have it known, that our goods are produced under the very best conditions. It certainly will not hurt our trade; it will help us. Saskatchewan and Nova Scotia have already taken action.

I look upon Geneva, after being there and attending all the Labor Conferences, and all the Assemblies, and seeing the work develop, as the world's round-table, and, like the Arthurian prototype, it seems to me to imply much more than mere discussion. It presupposes an honorable and a benign motive. It connotes a certain chivalry of purpose and a determination that the good of all shall be the outcome. It has faith in the redressing of human wrongs. I look upon it as a noble body, worthy of the united efforts of mankind. It has faith that in the ebb and flow of the affairs of nations, as in the affairs of men, there may be a flood-tide of practical idealism and realization of the horrors of war and the blessings of peace and co-operation; a time when the nations will fain discard the arbitrament of the sword for the reign of law. The present time seems to me to be such a time, and I believe it should be used to the utmost, both economically and from the standpoint of peace. The Temple of Peace is likely only to be built by the generation that knew the horrors of war and have faith in glorious international co-operation. (Loud Applause).

DR. J. MURRAY CLARK conveyed the thanks of the Club to the speaker for his inspiring and thoughtful address.

EDUCATION IN BUSINESS

An Address by DR. OTIS E. RANDALL, Dean of Brown University.

18th January, 1927.

The President, Colonel Kirkpatrick introduced the Speaker, who brought fraternal greetings from the British Empire Club of Providence, a great agency for encouraging closer relations between the British Empire and the United States. It was essential, he said, to cultivate such relationship between the two great nations, because the advance of civilization in the world depended more on that relationship than on any other cause. He made humorous reference to the question that might be asked as to why a College Dean should address business men, and then proceeded:—

Is a College education necessary in business ? Fifty years ago though clergymen were educated in the United States, college education was not considered essential for the practice of medicine, law or engineering. The greatest demand, in matters of health, was for the man who had the longest experience in actual medical practice, and this applied also in engineering. But times have changed, so many complicated problems have arisen in those professions that well-trained men must be had who can handle them. In those early days, education was looked upon by many as merely a storehouse of information, professors doling out knowledge to those who could pay for it. But education has changed its methods completely since then, so that the man who says College education is not essential in the practice of business is either antiquated in his notions or not familiar with the conflicting problems that arise every day in the business world.

Fifty years ago the stress was laid upon subject-matter, and little upon training the mind. The object then was to furnish to the physician or clergyman or lawyer simply a knowledge of history, philosophy, chemistry, physics, and the man who could pass the examination at the end of the semester was called an educated man. In those days professors insisted that the learning of those lessons was essential. I remember that if I tried to translate a Latin or Greek passage into any other language than the one selected I failed. There was little encouragement for a man to think and act for himself. That is not true education, but that was the kind they gave us, and I know thousands of men who have been through a college course and have studied law from beginning to end, yet to-day they are not serving mankind in the best possible way. So there are many practising medicine to-day who, through such old-fashioned training, have not yet learned the significance of human needs or how to apply the proper principles in dealing with them.

At a meeting in Providence lately, Mr. Chesney, the Superintendent of Health, made a report on the cooperation between Brown University and the City of Providence in maintaining the health of the City, and closed with the startling words, "The health of the City of Providence would be far better if you would chloroform fifty per cent of the practising physicians." Then we called upon a Clergyman to say how the University cooperated with the Clergy of the City of Providence in looking after the spiritual welfare of the people. He did not apply Dr. Chesney's statement to the clergy, but I wish he had, for I think we would be better off if fifty per cent of the pastors retired. Why? Because they are simply learned men, educated in the old schools, without having selected those colleges which stand for character and manhood, which make it possible for you and me to see the human needs and supply them.

In our institution we have seen the necessity for a revolution. We are trying to educate men, and are simply using the various subjects of the curriculum as agencies through which we can build men. I consider that modern education is divided into three parts.

The first has to do with physical needs. You will find thousands of men in the great business offices of our country who are not able to give more than fifty or seventy-five per cent of their ability, simply because they have weak bodies. That matter cannot be neglected, and we are looking after it as carefully as we can from the time the boy comes into college until he goes out. We have a corps of physicians watching every physical symptom, and if a man shows evidence of disease he is put under proper care. We are also devoting our athletic agencies in such a way as to build strong, healthy bodies.

Secondly, mental development is usually considered the proper work of the college, but that alone is not enough, and we are throwing overboard many old requirements, and are constantly insisting that the professors shall make use of their laboratories and libraries, lectures, and whatever the subject may be, with the aim of building men. There are only a few subjects that need to be taken in our schools and colleges for their value as education. There are some who claim that a man must have so much of this and of that or he is not cultured; but it is not the subject-matter that counts, it is the influence that study has upon the student. I believe that only a few subjects should be required in our colleges. Everyone must study English, because we must know our language, which is the tool we use in our work, the channel through which we express our thoughts. Then every man should have some knowledge of mathematics and general science, with some foreign language, some social science, which shows us how to live with one another—and there is nothing more important than that; the failure to understand it is the cause of our domestic and national and international troubles, so social science is essential. (Applause). Philosophy and history are also essential, for we must know where we stand, what went before us, in order to know how to go on in life. But outside of those subjects I am frank to say that it does not make much difference what you study. These are simply agencies through which we are building men and women, just as we use the gymnasium with dumb bells, chest weights, horizontal bars, etc., to make a strong body—not to be experts in the use of those agencies.

There is something else that must be looked after in the education of youth—the cultivation and development of those qualities that make you and me worth while to ourselves and to our fellow-men—I know no better name to use than to call it the spiritual. (Applause). Germany developed their men physically and mentally to the extreme, but they lacked the third element, and that lack was the cause of the world disaster. (Applause). If you leave out the cultivation of these spiritual qualities you simply make dangerous men. (Applause).

Now, what is business ? It is not true to-day to say that business is merely an occupation through which a man may earn his livelihood. I claim that if the law, or medicine, or engineering is a profession, then business is a profession. (Hear, hear). A profession is the pursuit of a particular activity created by human needs, involving so many complicated problems that men must have special preparation in order to handle them. Business to-day deals with production, transportation and distribution of those commodities which are essential for human living, including all the machinery needed for carrying on this work. If that is not a profession, I do not know what a profession is. From your experience you know that the problems that come before you every day, if they are to be carried on on the right scale, call for men of the best business training, with strong minds and sane judgment; and the man to-day who says that a college education is not necessary for business is behind the times. (Hear, hear). Why, every college of any pretentions in the United States has within five years introduced courses in business administration. In my own college 45 per cent of the students are enrolled for business courses, and every Spring, before we close, representatives of the biggest corporations in the country ask us to recommend men in the senior class for business positions, and they always say, "Don't recommend a man who is not going to get his degree." That means something. We are going to bring the profession of business to the point where it will be recognized as one of the strongest agencies we can use for the benefit of humanity, and we want the best pupils that we can find in the world for it.

Now I wish to lay stress upon three things. First, the relation between the employer and the employee. Some employers look upon their employees merely as part of their office equipment or mill machinery; they have not yet learned that those employees are human beings with souls like their own, and entitled to their rights. Look over the history of the warfare between capital and labour, and note the bloodshed, loss of millions, the stoppage of plant, etc., that has been going everywhere simply because there was not that friendly relation and understanding between employer and employeee. This is not a small matter; it is not a trite affair; it is a vital problem, and the man who does not realise that his employees are human beings who are to be treated kindly is not going to succeed in business. It is not a question of morality, but of economy, because it is just as easy for the leaders of great organizations to make their employees enthusiastic supporters of the plant as not. Everyone can be trained to see that in working for the promotion of the big cause they are securing their own personal promotion.

Secondly, I would speak of integrity in business. That is a common phrase. But there was a time when people looked upon business as an opportunity for one man to "do" or "outdo" the other; and when a man "put over" a low deal it would be said, "Well, never mind, it is business." But that is not business; and I tell you that the sooner we can bring the golden rule into our business transactions the more readily will we succeed, and the more completely will we serve our fellow-men. (Applause). The time has come when we should pay great respect to that principle, which I find is being so completely adopted in large business circles that men are ashamed and even afraid to do a crooked thing. From my experience I will say that I would trust my fortunes in the hands of a great many business men in preference to some who occupy high positions in churches. (Hear, hear). I say that, not because a business man regards it as business to be upright. Oh, we could carry that a great deal further.

Finally, and I believe this is the most important of all, I want to speak of the use of money. There has been a tendency for great business concerns and great corporations to look upon money acquired either by inheritance or by their own effort as their own, to be used for selfish purposes. You will find people of all professions who have been giving their lives up to those things which are really material and temporal. Many men who have acquired millions will tell you frankly, as they are about to pass into the other world, that life has been a failure. Why a failure ? Simply because they have misinterpreted the meaning of their good fortune; they have misused the opportunity which God placed in their hands. No man has a right to take the things which he acquires in this world through his God-given talents as his own. They are all lent; and the man who fails to make use of those opportunities is going to lose the best that life has to offer. (Applause). Speaking from a long experience in my own and various professions I can say that the only enjoyment I have had out of life is through the consciousness that I have helped somebody else—(Hear, hear)—and you business men, representing various branches, must look upon your funds and your assets as funds in trust, to be used by you for the service of mankind. When you recognize that, you will serve mankind as no other organization or profession can.

Gentlemen, I pray that you go on with that ideal, for only thus can you make this old world better for us to live in, and you will thus advance civilization. (Loud applause).

THE PRESIDENT thanked the Speaker for his interesting address, and then installed the President-elect to office.

HOW MUSIC IS MADE

AN ADDRESS BY GEOFFREY O'HARA, AUTHOR AND COMPOSER.

26th January, 1927.

COLONEL ALEXANDER FRASER, the President occupied the Chair and introduced MR. O'HARA as an Ontarian born, whose long residence in the United States only endeared his native land the more to him. He assured him of a most cordial welcome from the members of the Empire Club who were present in such large numbers.

MR. O'HARA'S Address was directed to show the natural, simple, character of popular music; its power of creating and fostering real culture; and imparting much happiness to the vast masses of the people. Music had a message for everyone,—the ignorant and the learned, the poor and the rich, the good and the bad, alike. Properly directed and used, there was scarcely any limit to its power for good. It was within the reach of all.

The greater part of the address was occupied by practical illustrations on the pianoforte of the composition of melodies, musical pieces, and of the simple combinations of notes required to construct smooth-flowing, melodious tunes,—the joy of children and the favourites of older people as well.

Mr. O'Hara combated the idea that there were many people who knew only very little about music. As a result of close study of the subject the conclusion he had arrived at was that comparatively few were devoid of a musical sense and aptitude, and it was well worth while using all possible means to awaken and develop that sense and aptitude. In applying his theme, the lecturer told many humourous anecedotes which delighted the audience. His illustrations on the pianoforte were singularly apt and a most favourable impression was made by the lecturer, who was accorded a hearty vote of thanks for a most entertaining address.

THE BUILDING OF A NATION

AN ADDRESS BY J. T. THORSON, M.A., M.P., DEAN OF THE MANITOBA LAW SCHOOL.

(*Links of Empire Series*)

10th February, 1927.

THE PRESIDENT introduced the Speaker as a distinguished Canadian, and welcomed him to the Club.

DEAN THORSON: was received with cheers, and spoke as follows:—Mr. Chairman and gentlemen of the Empire Club of Canada, I wish to express my appreciation of the honor which was conferred upon me when your Secretary invited me to address your Club, and I wish also to thank your Chairman for the very flattering remarks which he has just made concerning myself. I hope that I will be able to live up to the good wishes that he expressed on my behalf.

I have chosen the subject, the Building of the Nation, for my remarks to you this afternoon. If any of you are not agreed with the statements that I shall make during the course of my address, that I regret, but the statements which I propose to make, I make in all sincerity and in all honesty.

In building a nation in this new land of Canada we are charged with a great responsibility, and in discharging that responsibility we have two functions to perform. As architects we must draw the plans for a noble edifice, and as builders we must carry out those plans in order that our building may endure. Moreover, we must use the materials which we have at hand, our own materials. What materials are there in Canada for the building of a nation ? We have sound men and women of various racial origins, courageous and aggressive, and we have tremendous natural resources, fertile fields and vast forests, rich mines, and waters teeming with fish. Our industries are expanding and we have built and devised great systems of transportation and distribution. Of all these assets we in Canada are justly proud, but they alone can never make a nation. Bricks alone do not make a building; they must be truly laid upon a firm foundation, and they must be securely bound together. Upon what foundation shall we build in Canada ? How shall we bind together the material for nation building that we so plentifully possess. These are questions that I should like to discuss with you briefly this afternoon.

It has been said that the inhabitants of a country are a nation when they feel themselves to be a nation. Has there yet developed in Canada any such consciousness of nationality ? Is Canada a nation ? What is the status of Canada ? If I were to answer that question in a purely legalistic sense, I would say that the status of Canada is that of a dependency, and not that of sovereign state. The Dominion of Canada owes its existence as a legal entity to the British North American Act of 1867, a statute passed by the Parliament of Great Britain. That statute is the charter of Canada, beyond which its legislatures, whether federal or provincial, cannot validly act; and all legislation passed by the Parliament of Canada is subject to review and disallowance by the government of Great Britain. The Parliament of Great Britain, according to the terms of the British North America Act, possesses paramount legislative authority in all matters over the Dominion of Canada. We have heard a great deal recently of the Imperial Conference and the declarations made at that conference, but keep in mind that the Imperial Conference had no legislative authority, and the legal status of Canada has not changed one iota since Confederation. But the state of the law does not always reveal the true state of affairs. We had from the Privy Council very recently in the case of Rex v. Naden a startling reminder of Canada's inferior and subordinate legal position. But practice develops into constitutional convention, and constitutional conventions have political sanctions behind them, equal in force, at least, although different in kind, to the sanctions of law, and it would be wrong to say that the present status of Canada is to be found solely within the four corners of the British North America Act and its amendments. The husks of the law do not entirely conceal the ripening kernel of Canadian nationality. Prior to Confederation there were several British Colonies in British North America, each with a measure of self-government, each having its own separate political and economic entity. Their attitude of mind was colonial and provincial, and any idea of distinct nationality was indeed remote. Yet there were men in those days who could see visions of the future; Macdonald, Cartier, Tupper, and Magee, to mention only a few of the Fathers of Confederation, were real statesmen. They had the image of a united Canada before their eyes and they were not afraid to hope for the future. Their dreams of yesterday are becoming the realities of to-day. They sowed the seed of Canadian nationality, and that seed has grown with marvelous rapidity. Time does not permit me to do more than merely outline the stages of that rapid growth.

Upon the granting of responsible government to Canada there was a complete change in the attitude of Great Britain to Canada. Government from Downing Street is a thing of the past. Confederation conferred upon us a large measure of self-government. The checks on Federal Legislation have been rarely exercised, and there has been a complete recognition of our autonomy in the spheres of jurisdiction respectively assigned to the Provincial Legislatures and the Federal Parliament. We have been encouraged, by the wisdom of Great Britain, to solve our own problems in our own way, and our political independence and self-government in the spheres of jurisdiction assigned to us has developed a pride that comes from self-respect.

Economic progress has also played its part in our national growth. We are beginning to feel that in this Canada of ours we have a heritage of value, that this country is not a barren waste of ice and snow but a land of wealth and promise. The cultivation of our Western prairies, once regarded as worthless, the exploitation of our mines and our forests, and the development of our water powers, have given us the feeling that we are not paupers, that we can take our place with the other nations of the world and stand solidly upon our own feet, and we face the future with optimism and confidence. (Applause).

Prior to the war another factor contributed toward our national development. I refer to our participation in Imperial Conferences. The Dominions were called into the councils of the Empire on terms of equality as partners. At those Conferences our Canadian Premiers from Sir Wilfrid Laurier onward, and regardless of their political affiliations, have constantly maintained an independent attitude, and stoutly insisted upon the rights of the Canadian Parliament to determine for Canada what the course of Canada should be; and British Statesmen have freely recognized the justice of the position so uniformily taken by our Canadian leaders. And during the war the kernel of Canadian nationality ripened still further. No nation in the world played a more heroic part than Canada in that great drama that began in 1914. And Canada emerged in that war with a new status in the eyes of the world. She signed the peace treaty, and was recognized by Great Britain and by the powers of the world as a nation. She has taken her seat in the Councils of the League of Nations, and she proudly holds her place in the ranks of those nations that have undertaken the arduous march toward the goal of world peace. (Applause)..

Since the War further progress has taken place. We in Canada are thinking and speaking in terms of Canada more than we ever did before. The Canadian Clubs have begun a new lease of life. On every hand we see such organizations as the Native Sons of Canada springing into existence. From coast to coast groups of thinking men are being formed for the sole purpose of studying Canadian problems and promoting good will and mutual understanding among the various sections of Canada.

Canada now negotiates her own treaties with other nations; she has at last appointed an Ambassador to Washington, her first representative at a foreign capital; and Washington has reciprocated. There is a growing demand that Canada should have the right to determine for herself—whether she exercises that right or not is another matter—whether her judicial system should be self-contained or whether appeals should lie to the Privy Council. And we have settled for all time I hope that responsible government means in Canada exactly what it means in Great Britain, nothing more, nothing less, that in the last resort responsibility for political policies and political conduct shall be to the electors themselves. In the enjoyment of constitutional rights Canada has equality with Great Britain.

Now we come to the recent Imperial Conference, which declared definitely that equality of status which had gradually been recognized in practice. While that declaration of equality by the Imperial Conference has no legal validity, it nevertheless marks a great stage in our own development, for certain agreements are therein implied. Great Britain has impliedly agreed that she will not exercise the sovereign powers which she legally possesses, except with the concurrence or upon the request of Canada. The door is open for an increase of Canadian autonomy. Canada has simply to make the request, and the request will be granted. A little over a year ago I had the pleasure and the very great privilege of hearing the distinguished Canadian orator, Sir George Foster, speaking on the subject of Canada. He outlined very much more ably than I could hope to do, some of the stages of development that I have mentioned, and he made one statement upon that occasion which I should like to repeat to you to-day. No nation in the world of the size of Canada can point to as great an achievement as Canada has accomplished in the short space of half a century. The pulse of Canada is quickening and national consciousness has become a real factor in the public life of Canada. Our national growth has been steady and rapid. There are two questions which I should like to leave with you for your consideration. One of them is this, shall that growth continue ? And the other question is, can it cease ?

You may well ask me, why should we concern ourselves with the development of a national consciousness in Canada, a sense of nationality distinctively Canadian. If we have self-government and material prosperity, what more do we want ? What is the value of a national consciousness, a sense of nationality distinctly Canadian. Let me answer that question by turning to the lessons of history, but before I do so I should perhaps endeavour to explain to you what I mean by the term. I am not using the term in its original sense, for that implies community of racial origins, and that we do not possess in Canada. Nor am I using the term in a purely legal sense, implying solely community of allegiance, for we owe that allegiance in common with India and the Gold Coast. I am using the term perhaps in a special sense, I mean by it the spirit that holds the inhabitants of a country together, that places the country in which they live first in their affection, brings them from periods of adversity to periods of success, makes them a united force ready to defend their country and give their lives if need by in order that the honour of that country be preserved and that it may continue free and prosperous. I mean by the term the same spirit that inspired Leonidas and his noble band of Spartans to lay down their lives at Thermopylae that the Persian horde might not over-run Greece the land they loved; the spirit that moved Drake with his tiny English fleet to attack the Invincible Armada and sweep it from the seas, and so saved England from the maw of Spain; the spirit that held the British line intact at Waterloo and saved Europe from Napoleon; the spirit that actuated the French at Verdun, expressed in the words "They shall not pass" that kept the German troops out of Paris; the self same spirit that held the Canadians fast in that hell of poison gas at the Battle of Ypres. (Applause). Is the spirit that enables men to do these things, that keeps a nation steadfast, intact and strong, likely to be cast aside as a thing of little value ? And yet there are many in this land of ours who would stifle our very growth toward nationality and nationhood. They raise the cry of disloyalty.. To them the quickening of the pulse of Canada spells disintegration of the Empire, the breaking of the ties that bind Canada to Great Britain, the abnegation of British institutions and traditions. Gentlemen, their fears are unfounded. (Applause). There is no one in this audience who more ardently admires British institutions and British traditions than I do. Great Britain is the mother of liberty, she has been the leader of the world in system and political development. She stands in the very forefront of the nations of the world as the home of law and order, a model of commercial and political morality for other nations of the world to follow. Yet nowhere in the world is there greater national consciousness than in the countries of Scotland and England. Has the national consciousness of Scotland weakened the ties of Empire? Then why have fears for the development of a national consciousness and a pride and love of country in Canada? I have no fears for the future of Canada; there is developing in Canada to-day a national consciousness and I am proud of it. Let it be our duty, yours and mine, to develop that consciousness, nourish it, so that it may grow clean and strong.

We have accomplished much in this short space of half a century, and much remains to be accomplished. Our pathway is beset with obstacles, economic and racial. We have many problems still to solve. How shall we overcome the obstacles in our way ? How shall we solve the problems that confront us ? Canada, unfortunately, is not an economic entity, and is fighting a difficult battle against natural geographic barriers. Our provinces have been described as a row of pearls loosely strung on the thin threads of our transcontinental railways, British Columbia thousands of miles from Nova Scotia. We have—and this has been repeated so often that I hesitate to repeat it to-day—four distinct economic sections in Canada. The Maritime Provinces isolated in a corner, the central provinces with their industrial ambitions, the agricultural prairie provinces, and British Columbia over the mountains by the Pacific Coast. Each section has its own economic needs, and they are widely divergent. There is discontent in the Maritime Provinces and much talk of Maritime rights. Central Canada demands protection for her industries; the west battles with the east and insists upon the claims of agriculture, and British Columbia is specially concerned with the solution of her own problems. Sectionalism with its attendant discord threatens the national economic harmony. And to the south of us for over four thousand miles we have a wealthy and powerful neighbor, friendly, it is true, but nevertheless constantly acting as a magnet, drawing from us thousands of our best young men and women with the lure of greater opportunity, and at the same time peacefully acquiring economic control over many of our industries, and many of our natural resources. These are great problems; far be it from me to attempt their solution today, but may I in all humility make certain suggestions ?

In defining economic policies, let us not be led into vain competition with our wealthy neighbor, but keep in mind the needs of Canada. We are at times prone to envy the greater monetary wealth of that powerful neighbor. Let us cast out from our souls any spirit of envy, for we need feel no envy if we develop properly what we have ourselves. (Hear, hear, and applause.) Canada is richer in natural wealth per capita than any other country in the world, but we must develop that wealth in concord and harmony. Most of the economic problems of Canada are problems, because they are sectional problems, and our economic difficulties will continue to be in the main sectional difficulties. Sectional demands, therefore, must be granted if those sectional demands are just, and if the granting of them is essential to the development of the particular section involved. The health of the body depends upon the health of all its organs, and the economic unity and prosperity of Canada depends upon the manner in which sectional difficulties are solved. We must develop in Canada a greater knowledge of the economic needs of the various sections of Canada, a sense of national interdependence in order that each section of Canada may develop according to its needs, for the common welfare of Canada as a whole. And our national consciousness must include in it that essential spirit of co-operation based upon mutual understanding and good-will.

And we have racial problems in Canada, considered serious by some. The extent of that seriousness depends upon our attitude to the problem. We have a mixed population in this land of ours, of French, British, and non-British origin. How shall we weld all these peoples into a united whole ? It has always seemed to me that we ought to draw some distinction between French Canadians and other Canadians of non-British origin. The latter came to this country ready to build a new home in this new land. They have purposely broken the ties that bound them to the land of their birth; they have purposely pulled their roots from the soil of their native land and planted them in Canada. Each group, and there are many of them, particularly in Western Canada, will have its contribution to make to the national life of Canada. And you and I will have to accept that contribution whether we like it or not, because the groups are here. But what that contribution will be depends upon our treatment of the newcomer. He must be trained to the task of nation-building, even as you and I must be trained. He must become familiar with the plans that we have drawn, he must learn to breathe the spirit of Canadain institutions and tradition, and you and I must be prepared to teach. (Applause.) But the French Canadian, in my humble opinion, is in a vastly different position. He is not an alien coming to a strange land; his fathers have trod the soil of Canada and breathed its spirit for over three hundred years. Different in racial origin, different in language, different in religion from the majority of other Canadians, he has remained different for over 150 years since Canada came under the British flag. He has clung to his language and to his religion with that fervid intensity that must command our admiration, and in my humble opinion he will continue to cling with that same fervid intensity. And why interfere ? True national unity does not depend upon uniformity of any race or creed. We cannot, even if we should desire to do so, press men into a common mould. Quebec cannot be made English, and I imagine that Ontario will not willingly become French. And why try ? Why not face the facts ? Why not freely recognize that this Canadian nationality of which we speak is now and probably always will be a dual nationality ? What Belgium and Switzerland have done, Canada likewise can do. The plans which we have drawn for this Canada of ours are the plans of a great democracy, and true democracy is founded upon the eternal principles of liberty, equality, and fraternity. These are to constitute the foundation upon which we shall build the Canadian nation. Liberty of self-development, equality of language and religion, and the fraternity of a common love of Canada. (Applause.)

I trust that you will pardon me if I make use of an illustration from my native City of Winnipeg. In that city we have splendid Parliament Buildings, situated on Broadway between Kennedy Street on the east and Osborne Street on the west. In front of these Parliament Buildings there are four statues. Upon the statue nearest Kennedy Street, the farthest east, there are engraved these words, "May the new Province of Manitoba speak always to the inhabitants of the Northwest the language of reason, truth, and justice." What a noble sentence. Manitoba has not always spoken that language, but Manitoba must learn to speak it, and every province of Canada must learn to speak it to every other province if Canada is to be the great land that we plan it to be. These words were spoken by Cartier, a French Canadian Father of Confederation, of the Province of Manitoba in 1870, and it is his statue which stands there nearest Kennedy Street, the statue of a French Canadian. And then proceeding westward we come to a statue presented by the Kingdom of Iceland to the Province of Manitoba. (Applause.) It is that of a man called John Eggartson, little known in the history of world politics, but he is known in Iceland, a man who fought for political independence in that small island in the northern seas. Many pass that statue day by day and wonder who that man is with that foreign-sounding name. To me that statue signifies more than merely that obscure statesman. It symbolizes to me the presence in our midst of the descendants of our foreign-born who left the land of their birth and came to Canada, that their children might enjoy the freedom and the liberty of this great new land. And in front of the entrance to the Parliament Buildings Queen Victoria sits on her throne of bronze, a constant reminder of our unbreakable Anglo-Saxon ties. (Applause.) And furthest west, in the direction of the setting sun there is a monument erected to our fallen soldiers, erected by their next of kin, and upon that monument are engraved the names of Canadian heroes of French, British, and non-British origin. United, those men fought in war against a common foe, and gallantly those men gave their lives for Canada and for liberty. Equal those men lie in the fields of France and Flanders, equal in the fraternity of death. And shall we not be worthy of those gallant men, and that national consciousness of which I speak breathe those eternal principles of liberty, equality, and fraternity ? Then we shall have the cement with which to bind together the material for nation-building that we possess, and we shall complete that edifice according to our plans, and it will be ours, and our children's, and our children will keep that edifice throughout the ages with pride, and that edifice we shall call Canada, our home and native land. (Applause.)

The thanks of the Club to the speaker were tendered by Dean Falconbridge of the Ontario Law School.

MINERAL WEALTH OF CANADA

AN ADDRESS BY JAS. MACINTOSH BELL, O.B.E., PH.D., LL.D.

Thursday, 17th February, 1927

COLONEL ALEXANDER FRASER presided, and in introducing the speaker referred to the eminence he had attained to in his profession and to the extraordinary success with which his operations in the Ontario mining field had already been crowned.

DR. MACINTOSH BELL said : Most Canadians appreciate the vast dimensions of their country, the immense agricultural productivity of the Prairies and the fertile lowlands of Quebec and Ontario; the colossal value of our forests, which, despite the inroads of the pulp industry and the more serious depredations of forest fires, still clothe large portions of the mountainous area of British Columbia, the valley of the mighty Mackenzie, and the Northern Highlands of Ontario, Quebec, and Manitoba; and the richness of our fisheries, not only in the oceans which wash our shores, but in the numerous inland lakes. How many of us realize, on the other hand, that the potential mineral wealth of Canada represents an asset, still largely untouched, probably greater in its importance than any of these.

Unquestionably, there is no single factor which has done more to encourage the settlement of large areas than the discovery of important mineral deposits. It is common knowledge that the finding of rich gold deposits in California led to the opening up of the great American West, and that similar occurrences precipitated the settlement of the Australian Continent. To come to our own country, the discovery of the Klondike spread knowledge of the grain possibilities of the Prairies, while Cobalt, Kirkland Lake and Porcupine have been largely responsible for the development of an agricultural fringe along the railroads in the Clay Belt of Northern Ontario, and for various other activities, supporting a vigorous population. "California to-day"—according to de Launay, the great French geologist—"is noted for its farms and orchards, rather than for its ores, but the labor of the mine paved the way for the wagon". You have all heard the expressions: "Not all the gold in the Klondike would tempt me". In other words, the Yukon has been known the world over as one of the world's greatest gold fields, yet Northern Ontario, in less than half the time, has produced a great deal more.

Canada is richly endowed with deposits of both metallic and non-metallic minerals, and is now one of the great mineral-producing countries of the world. The growth, while showing inevitable minor recessions, has been generally steady and singularly rapid. In 1925, the total value of the mineral output was about $225,000,000.00, or $25.00 per capita. Ten years earlier, it was about $137,000,000.00, or $17.00 per capita, and in 1886 was only a little over $10,000,000.00, or about $2.25 per capita. We are now the third gold producer in the world, being exceeded only by South Africa and the United States. In 1925, the figures were as follows:

Transvaal	$198,399,790
United States	47,956,991
Canada	35,880,819
Mexico	16,309,929
Australia and New Zealand	13,914,610
India	8,140,711

Ontario is Canada's richest mineral province. The value of the output of the metallic mines of the northern part of the province alone, up to the present, has reached the vast total of one billion dollars. Final figures for the year just closed indicate that the value of the production of these for 1926 will reach $61,000,000.00. During the same year the gold and silver mines alone paid dividends of $12,563,745.00, an increase of $2,240,000.00 over the year before. The International Nickel Company distributed $3,881,524.00, and, in addition, the Mond Nickel Company and The Huronian Belt Company paid to their shareholders in Great Britain substantial amounts derived from the Northern mines.

The chief mineral products of Ontario, in the order of their importance, are : Gold, nickel, silver, copper, platinum, and cobalt. The gold production for 1926 will be approximately $31,000,000.00; nickel, copper and platinum approximately $19,500,000.00, and silver, cobalt, arsenic and other elements rather more than $10,000,000.00. Altogether, the production up to the present from the silver camps amounts to the vast total of 350,000,000 ounces, and over $100,000,000.00 have been distributed in dividends. Sudbury, as you probably all know, is much the greatest nickel camp in the world, and incidentally, it is the largest source of platinum metals on the American continent.

Either directly or indirectly, the whole of Ontario derive material advantage from its northern mines. They have employed many thousands of men in the different mining camps, and have engulfed vast stores of supplies of every conceivable sort, which, in large part, have come from the manufacturing towns of the southern part of the province, more especially Toronto. Timmins, the most important of the mining communities, has long since ceased to be merely a collection of rough shacks; it is a respectable-looking town of nearly 15,000 inhabitants. Strangely enough, the towns do not cease with the decline of the mining industry to which they owe their existence. Cobalt to-day, in a mining sense, is a mere shell of its former grandeur, yet its bankers report they are making greater profits than ever before. After strenuous efforts for years to avoid the outlay, the town was forced to build additions to its public school a year or so ago, and last year had to build a High School.

The mineral wealth of British Columbia is scarcely less diversified than that of Ontario, and, in addition, it possesses the great advantage of having abundant stores of coal. The total value of the output from its metalliferous veins up to the end of 1925 was about $525,000-000.00, or about half that of Ontario, and from its alluvial gold deposits there came a further $77,663,045.00 up to the same date. The largest Copper Smelter in the Empire is situated at Anyox, on the northern coast, operated by the Granby Consolidated Mining and Smelting Company. The Sullivan Mine, at Kimberley, belonging to the Consolidated Mining and Smelting Company, is now considered to be the largest lead-zinc mine in the world.

There is not time, in this address, to dwell upon the vast coal-fields and the oil and gas resources of the prairies. Suffice it to say that they form an immense source of potential wealth. Apart from its coal deposits, Nova Scotia possesses a variety of metalliferous occurrences, and its gold mining, which has languished in recent years, shows some signs of revival. The peninsula of Gaspé has, among other interesting occurrences, what appear to be large deposits of lead-zinc minerals, now in process of vigorous development.

The mining areas of Northern Ontario, and that of North-Western Quebec, of which we have heard so much lately, occur in what are known geologically as pre-Cambrian rocks. These rocks, which cover more than half of Canada, extend southwards in the United States, and have produced the great iron and copper deposits of the Northern States bordering the southern part of Lake Superior. In Canada they occupy a great U, with its base in the south-central part of Ontario, and its limbs extending north-westward through the eastern parts of Manitoba and Saskatchewan to the shores of the Arctic near the mouth of the Mackenzie, and north-eastward to the mouth of the St. Lawrence. By far the greater part of the country to the northward of these rough outlines is composed of pre-Cambrian rocks, and they form, indeed, a vast store of potential mineral wealth. Pre-Cambrian rocks, I may mention, by the way, are the chief source from which is derived the gold, not only of Canada, but of the Transvaal, India, and Western Australia.

The mineral wealth of the pre-Cambrian area of Canada is not inexhaustible, boundless, limitless; no possible mineral resources of any part of the earth can correctly be so described. These are absurd adjectives, the ineptitude of which is transparent to any student of mines. Nevertheless, when one bears in mind that not more than fifteen or twenty per cent. of the pre-Cambrian rocks, even of Ontario, have been prospected at all, and an infinitely smaller percentage of those of the whole Dominion, one cannot but be struck with the vast possibilities. However, let us be realists, not visionaries; let us speak of these possibilities in their proper perspective. The producing camps of Sudbury, Cobalt, South Lorrain, Gowganda, Kirkland Lake, and Porcupine, lie within a circle having a radius of only 75 miles, and within this circle also comes the Horne Mine of the Noranda, within the Province of Quebec—the greatest recent discovery—soon to become an important producer of gold and copper.

Within recent years a great number of trained prospectors have appeared, led by the lure of the fascinating quest for mineral wealth. Every year sees them penetrating farther and farther into that great wilderness of river, lake and forest of the north, and scarcely a season passes without some real and important discovery being made. The indications of various minerals are extraordinarily widespread, but inevitably and naturally, the concentrations which are of economic importance are not less restricted. The search for these gives zest to mining. No one can say how many new Cobalts, new Porcupines, new Kirkland Lakes may be found, but we can confidently expect great developments, from time to time, which will play an important role in the future of the country. We already know of vast deposits of iron ore on the Belcher Islands of Hudson's Bay, of no less important occurrences of native copper near the Copper Mine River, and of lead-zinc near Great Slave

Lake, which are now considered too remote for utilization. But I, for one, look forward to the day when ships of great size will ply up and down the majestic Mackenzie and across the great expanse of Hudson's Bay laden not only with the wares of the fur trader, or with the products of the forest, but with those derived from these great stores of future mineral wealth, which cannot be ignored.

Someone has described a mine as "a hole in the ground with a liar sitting on top". You have no doubt heard that there are three kinds of liars; liars, damned liars, and mining experts. Now, gentlemen, a good many "mines", so-called, are mere "holes in the ground" or not even that, with crooked lawyers and mining thugs, unscrupulous brokers and other such prevaricating gentry associated with their exploitation, but not all mines are of this character. Fundamentally, mining is a clean business, its object being to take wealth from the earth and make it available for the common good, and many earnest, reputable men of all professions are associated with this great basal industry. There has, however, been a tendency among the big financial interests of Canada to fail to realize what her mineral resources mean; to be unfamiliar with these great activities which are adding so much to our national wealth. There has been an unrespectable flavour, as far as mines are concerned, in the palates of our reputable business men. This attitude has been highly unfortunate, but it cannot be considered inexplicable, when one bears in mind that many of the earlier mining ventures in Ontario and elsewhere were not attended by success, and that inevitably a fundamentally speculative business has its satellites who know next to nothing about mining, but who are adepts at gulling a guileless public. Happily, and, if I may say so, very wisely, the point of view of our business men towards mining is changing. It is recognized that a mine does not mean a hole in the ground in which much good money disappears but none ever emerges, nor that a mining company is irretrievably disreputable. Much of the charm of mining, in a sense, lies in its speculative aspect, but the shares of a carefully managed mining company, more particularly one with a diversity of interests, or one well established, need not be less certain of a sure return, than those of the best run industrial concern. The number of people who are gambling in and have done well out of mining stocks, is quite extraordinary, but whereas this alluring speculative aspect cannot be entirely separate from the industry, it is not the point of view we want to encourage; rather we require, and fortunately are getting, powerful companies and groups with strong financial backing interested in the industry, examining and exploring a considerable number of mineral prospects, after careful technical consideration, any one of which may make good on such a large scale as to amply recoup the concern for its expenditure on the others.

In spite of all the financial vicissitudes through which Great Britain has passed as a result of her whole-hearted support of the World War from its very inception, I suppose London is still the greatest mining market in the world. Her capitalists own or control the fortunes of mines in every corner of the globe; her engineers, even in these days of a greatly restricted national purse, are continually on the look-out for new mineral properties; the offices of her mining magnates are constantly besieged for assistance of all sorts of endeavours. Yet, for various reasons, which I shall presently explore, she fills a relatively unimportant role in the mineral development of the greatest of the British Dominions, our own Canada.

When I first went to London in 1911 and was endeavoring to interest the big mining groups of that great centre in the exploration of Canada's mineral resources by the formation of what I believed would be a sound mining business in Canada, backed by British capital, I confess to having come up against many snags. Everywhere I was faced with uncomplimentary references to the Rossland fiascos, and the disappointments of the Lake of the Woods. Let me give you an account of a somewhat perturbing interview. It was with Sir Ernest Cassel, considered at that time to be the richest man in England, and with a wide diversity of interest. Well introduced, I was ushered into the presence of the great man, but not asked to sit down. "What is your business"? he questioned. "Mining", I replied, "I am anxious to establish an Anglo-Canadian mineral exploration company; there are great opportunities in this direction in Canada." "All mining men are scoundrels, I am not interested. You may go", was his response. My meeting a few days later was more satisfactory. Similarly well introduced, I presented myself at the office in the city of Sir Edgar Speyer—in 1911, scarcely a less important personality than Sir Ernest Cassel. It was a hot July afternoon and I was shown to a dark but extraordinarily beautiful waiting room. It was, indeed, a waiting-room, because there I stayed for nearly an hour but no one appeared. Thinking I had been forgotten, I rang a bell, and the Commissionaire announced upon answering it that he would inform Sir Edgar's secretary that I had to leave for another appointment. Scarcely had he gone when a man entered, hat in hand, looking very young and debonair. Thinking him to be the Secretary, I said: "I am waiting to see Sir Edgar Speyer, but fear I must leave for another appointment." "I am he", to my great amazement, the newcomer replied. "Surely, so young a man is not the great financier?" I remarked, in genuine spontaneity. That was the beginning of a most pleasant association. Sir Edgar gave me numerous letters of introduction, including some to the Group who have stuck to me faithfully and amazingly uncomplainingly through all the ups and downs inevitable to the mining business, ever since.

British capital was almost entirely responsible for the development of the mines of the Rand, the goldfields of the South and North Island of New Zealand, the great mines of Western Australia and of India. In every part of the far-flung British Dominions except Canada. What, once more, is the reason? The effect of early disappointments, the fact that Canadian and American mining organizations are as well or better equipped financially and are able to grasp the opportunities presented quickly; it is a case of "fruits to the swift."

Highly capable British engineers were on the ground at Porcupine in the very beginning of the excitement, but either through lack of faith in unusual conditions, or through failure of the London capitalists to support their decisions, London quickly lost interest. Obviously, it is very difficult to get exact information as to what portion of our mining holdings are held in Canada and what portion abroad. The latest statistics suggest that about 54% of the shareholders in Canadian mines are Canadians, 30% are American, 13% are British, and 3% belong to other countries. I think, however, there are now signs of an increasing interest in Great Britain, and many of the more prominent British mining concerns have either syndicates, exploration companies, or independent engineers operating in this country. The only British companies deriving their revenue from Canadian mines which are at the moment dividend-payers are : the Mond Nickel Company and the Huronian Belt Company. The Huronian Belt Company—or interests connected therewith—control such Canadian companies as the Keeley Silver Mines, the Vipond Consolidated, and the Canadian Lorrain, but these, it must be understood, are Canadian companies, not British.

In connection with the checkered history of the Keeley mine, it is interesting to note that it was the Associated Gold Mines of Western Australia (a London company owning a rich West Australian mine) which provided the Huronian Belt Company with the necessary capital to develop that property after it had been acquired from the liquidators of the Farmers' Bank, and time after time came to its rescue, before it finally emerged as the rich and successful property it is to-day. It still possesses hundreds of shareholders in far-off Australia. This incident suggests Imperial co-operation, indeed !

There has been a tendency—I believe an unfortunate one—on the part of the British press, to show less sympathy to Canadian mining than has the American. British writers on mining affairs have perhaps dwelt too much with the Davidsons and Bingos, rather than with the Hollingers and Lake Shores. But this phase will pass, as more London-owned or controlled successful mining concerns develop, as they will. British people are remarkably game, and not quickly disheartened. Canada needs and welcomes their assistance in the investigation of its mineral areas, so distant from each other and often so difficult to explore. We should like to see more dividend cheques being cashed in the Old Country from Canadian mines. We hope that Great Britain will realize that despite certain inevitable fiascos, the Canadian mining industry is making giant strides, and is much more likely to make further progress than to languish. Many British men of affairs are now alive to these facts; some, indeed, much more alive to the importance of this basal industry of our country than most Canadians occupying analogous positions.

The approaching visit of the Empire Mining and Metallurgical Congress next summer should be productive of much good. It should create in the minds of the British Engineers who will congregate from every corner of the globe, a fuller appreciation of what is being accomplished at the widely diversified mines of Canada, an understanding of the special problems, geological and otherwise, inevitably connected with their development; a recognition of the opportunities presented by the great unexplored areas of this country.

Sir Alfred Mond, on a recent visit to Canada, pointed out that the world is becoming divided into great economic units. The United States, entirely self-contained, already forms one of these; another he considered was developing in Central Europe. In the widespread Dominions of the British Empire, containing every conceivable sort of natural resource, there lay, he believed, the well-developed nucleus of a group which would dwarf all others into insignificance. It is inspiring to visualise what a significant part Canada might play in such an Imperial scheme; what an important contribution to the common good would be provided by her widely diversified mineral wealth.

The Speaker was heartily thanked for his masterly Address.

WOLFE AND MONTCALM

BY PROFESSOR GEORGE M. WRONG, M.A., LL.D., Professor of History, University of Toronto.

24th February, 1927.

The distinguished lecturer was introduced by the President, and after a few explanatory remarks at once proceeded with a film representation of the siege and capture of Quebec by the British under General Wolfe. The "epic of Canada's early history" as Professor Wrong's story has been happily called, had been recently dramatized and made into a three-reel moving picture film of exceptional educational value. The theme affords fine scope for realistic reproductions of historic scenes and personages and the representation was most ably and interestingly executed.

PROFESSOR WRONG was cordially thanked for the spoken explanations he had so clearly and charmingly given.

THE SITUATION IN CHINA

BY PROFESSOR W. GOFORTH, M.A.,
McGILL UNIVERSITY, MONTREAL

3rd March, 1927

Introduced by the President, PROFESSOR GOFORTH said : The Chinese puzzle we are trying to solve to-day has held too little interest among Canadians until recently, especially Canadians of the central and eastern provinces. We have been rather vaguely conscious of some forty thousand Celestials in our midst, and have rather breathed a sigh of relief that the majority of these are in British Columbia and not in Ontario. Many have also made the mistake of judging this nation by the occupational status of most of the Celestials in our midst; and in spite of the fact that 75% of the Chinese have never heard of soap and know nothing of its use, yet we have judged them as a nation of laundrymen. (Laughter.)

From May, 1925, however, Canadian interest in Chinese affairs has increased. Among the factors that have caused this change are are the unenviable plight in which our Mother Country has found herself as the focus point of a bitter hatred on the part of some misguided Chinese, a hatred inspired from the outside as well as the inside, a hatred which did not originate in Russia, for it existed long before Bolshevist Russia came into being, but upon which Russia has poured oil of misunderstanding and suspicion, which has increased the flames until they are now blazing brightly. We have also noticed that our trade with China has been growing very rapidly in recent years. Advance figures from the Department of Trade and Commerce show that Canadian exports to China last year were not only the greatest on record, but equal to the total from Confederation to

1913. More and more, eyes are turning towards the Pacific; it is becoming the centre of human thought and action and intercourse, and we are taking a greater interest in it. Those of you who are industrialists will know that our trade with China is not the type we need to fear or beware of. There are very few things we import from China that are competing with our own lines, and the things we send are very much needed there. For instance, Chinese millers find our No. 1 hard wheat essential for their flour; they are also wanting our lumber from British Columbia, and with the present growth of education and of Chinese newspapers, there is a growing demand for newsprint on the part of the Chinese. This immense market, only a part of which has been scratched in the past, is now opening, opening because of three main causes which have come into being during the last generation.

The first fundamental idea we must grasp in order to understand the present situation centres around the revolution of 1911. The revolution of 1911 did not mean a mere change in the appearance of government from an Imperial Manchu dynasty to a so-called Republic. It was more than that. It gave a great impetus to political thought in China, and it gave a great impetus to those who, like Yung Chu Chow, the Rousseau of China, had done their thinking and writing in secret for fear of losing their heads. Now they came into the open and told the people what they needed, and tried to inspire a new nationalism, a new consciousness of their rights and of their equality with other nations.

The second thing was the retrocession of the Boxer indemnity on the part of the American Government and their insistence that the money be used to send Chinese students to the United States. This, I would call the intellectual renaissance of China, which is one of the fundamental causes of the present situation. If you look down the list of Who's Who in China you will find a large proportion of China's outstanding men to-day were educated at Harvard, Princeton, Yale, Chicago, and so on, a larger proportion than in any other country. In the Nationalist Cabinet to-day Harvard and Yale predominate. One of the most important members is a graduate of the London School of Economics, and it is rather interesting to relate that he is also a graduate of a Jesuit Seminary, where, probably, he achieved some of his splendid philosophic insight into the political difficulties and political questions, and then in the London Schools of Economics gained his grounding in the essential causes of China's industrial and commercial difficulties.

The third factor, which is all-important in the Chinese situation, the third fundamental cause, was the Great War of 1914 to 1918. This brought about the industrial revolution of China. I am not saying that the industrial revolution has gone its limit yet, any more than ours has gone its limit yet, but the industrial revolution in China came in 1914 with the abnormal demand for Chinese goods in war-torn Europe. The industries of China began to grow rapidly, and a new industrial working class developed. It also opened up a great deal of country previously closed to foreign intercourse. It has been estimated by Professor Rimmer, of St. John's University, Shanghai, that about eighty per cent. of China, even to-day, has not been touched by foreign intercourse, except possibly by foreign missionaries. He claims that the only part of China that has or uses any foreign articles, or sends any articles abroad, is this twenty per cent. along the coast and up the rivers, and along the 8,000 miles of railroads,—only one-fifth of the Canadian railway mileage, although the population of China is forty times greater.

This industrial revolution, and the intellectual renascence, and the revolution in political thought, these three things, have brought about the present crisis. The present crisis is an exceedingly complicated and difficult one. There is one thing I would like to say at this point; it is that the need to change the previous conditions under which we as foreigners lived in China, was not realized by Western powers until it was almost too late. It appears to be almost too late now. The strategic time, judged by the statements of eminent students of Chinese history, the strategic time when the Western powers, and Britain especially, should have taken the lead in changing those special privileges and conditions we enjoy in China, the treaty rights, etc., was in 1912, when the Manchu Dynasty had fallen and when Yuan Shih-kai was firmly in the saddle, for a while at least. The dictatorship of Yuan Shih-Kai did not affect the Cantonese nationalists nearly as much as his inability to revise these treaties. Sun Yat-Sen had nailed down in his platform, even before the revolution, that essential plank, the revision of those unequal rights. But we did not grasp that at the time. Possibly all eyes were fixed on Europe and the impending war and we did not realize the results of procrastination. If they had been realized then, that would have prevented China being scattered, with this color scheme of military satrapies which we look upon to-day. But the opportunity was not taken.

I have consulted several Chinese of all shade of political thought, intellectual Chinese, as to the justice of these treaty privileges in the first stage of western intercourse with the Far East, and nearly all of them admit that they were essential at that stage. Those who have told you that we had no business going to China, that we were never wanted there, are wrong. All intelligent Chinese to-day will thank us for what we have sent to them; they will thank us for many things. Some of the things are associated with our progress in trade and industry, others with our medical missionaries who have alleviated a great deal of suffering, and others with educationists in China. These things they appreciate, at least the vast majority of them appreciate, and their leaders above all, for the great majority of Chinese leaders to-day are educated, at least they have come in close contact with, and have received their impetus from western ideas. And they admit that when an irresistible force, like our dynamic West, comes in contact with an immovable object, like the changeless East, it required some device to soften the impact, and that device was this group of so-called unequal treaties. The form they took was naturally judged according to the needs of the time. The special concessions of land along the coast and up the rivers were necessary in order to prevent the possibility of destruction of property and warehouses, and to give security to treaty relations. On the other hand there was another privilege which we gained during this time, which we speak of as extra-territoriality. It merely meant that we claimed jurisdiction over our own nationals throughout China, they were to be tried in our own courts. Why ? Because the judicial system under the Manchus was notoriously corrupt; and China will admit that do-day. One of the reasons for the revolution of 1911, one of their slogans, was to abolish this system and set up a new and humane system in its place. In 1912 they had at least planned this new system, they had it down on paper, and they wanted to put it into effect.

Added to these previous special privileges there was another question, the control of the Chinese Customs. During the nineteenth century, the earlier part of it, and getting worse toward the time when the Customs were taken over, western merchants found themselves open to extortion on the part of the central government, and also the government was unable to check the leakage of funds through the collectors. It is estimated that only about one-fifth of the Customs collected reached Pekin. Our present Customs probe would look very weak alongside of that. (Laughter.) So the western Powers, with China's full permission and approval, took over the administration of the Customs, and for some decades a Britisher has had the position of Inspector General of Maritime Customs, because they trusted his sagacity and fair-mindedness. Not only was it the will of the Chinese, but of other Powers, that a Britisher should hold that position. It is interesting to note that Sir Francis Aglen, who has been recently discharged from that position, was one of the many who have held the position of Inspector General of Maritime Customs.

Chinese in the south have stated recently in their newspapers that the Pekin government was facing financial suicide by discharging a man who had been one of their most valued and trusted employees during the thirty-nine years of his service for them. (Applause.) As I have already pointed out, by 1912 conditions had changed and the people were eager for reform. The southern party, most of them educated abroad, had planned to change the corrupt conditions. Of course you cannot change a nation in a day, and you cannot change the corruption in a year, and the Western Powers distrusted their hopes and plans, and Bland, the *Daily Mail* correspondent in Shanghai, claimed that it was a mere paper desire to improve conditions and that we should not make any attempt to loosen up the hold on the Far East. That was our mistake; we listened to men like Bland, instead of to men like Morrison. The result was things got progressively worse. They broke away from the North and chaos followed, which has gone from bad to worse ever since, until now we find ourselves in a very awkward position in the Far East, facing the possibility of a great conflagration and a world war on the Pacific.

What would be the steps we should have taken at that time, the steps we must ultimately take ? These are the steps. First we should have handed back to the Chinese the right to control collection of their customs duties, and to set the tariff level. This could not be done in a day, because all the best trained men were British and foreigners, but it could be done gradually, over a period of ten years, by having the men study the situation under the guidance of the foreigners. Secondly, we should have relinquished our hold over extra-territoriality, gradually. We should also have granted to the Chinese joint administration of the concessions, which we have not done till the last few months, and then only under duress. Then we should have granted them full police authority in those concessions when they had proved their power to undertake it. But all of these must rest on one other thing, that is, a moratorium. Successive Chinese governments, who thought more of lining their own pockets than of advancing the interests of their nation, and who did not represent the best interests of the nation, borrowed heavily from abroad, and mortgaged most of their revenues, including customs revenue. The result was the government Yuan Shik-kai took over had no definite source of income. They had no method of paying the armies, no money to pay for setting up the new judicial system, which in a country of 400 million people would cost a great deal. So a moratorium should have been granted then, and should yet be granted, possibly a ten-year moratorium. It would be better to have the asurance of collecting ten years later than the almost certain assurance that we will collect nothing. That is the problem we are facing to-day.

To come to more recent events. The peace treaty gave China a new sense of equality and national sovereignty. The peace treaty considered her the equal of other nations, and this impressed many Chinese who heard about what had happened in Paris and Versailles. Again in the Washington Conference of 1922 did we give at least a formal recognition of equality, and the Powers promised to do something for them a promise which could not be kept. We cannot blame them for not keeping it then, for conditions were so bad they saw no way to put it into effect. Other things had caused China to veer around against Britain. Japan had returned Tsing Tau, for which China was thankful, and the anti-Japanese boycott immediately ceased and Japan took the role of the friend of China. Partly through the influence of the late President Harding, another great institution was destroyed in that Washington Conference, the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. Britain in the hope that a new Anglo-American-Japanese Alliance could maintain peace better, was deceived into breaking off the old alliance, one that was kept to the letter by Japan throughout the years of its history. (Applause.) By the peace treaty Germany and Austria had renounced their rights in China, their concessions, and their extra-territorial rights; they were taken from them almost by a forced measure. Then Russia, whose legal claim to concessions in China were very weak, had renounced all legal claims abroad, and they turned east and in order to make bad things better made a treaty with China which formally handed over her concessions, and gave back to China the right to try her subjects in their courts. This was gradually narrowing down toward the focussing of all Chinese feeling against Great Britain, and one of the most striking factors of the present situation is the isolation of Britain. Those who speak of Britain's foreign policy slightingly should consider the position Britain is in. She is no more responsible for conditions in China than any other Power. She indeed has taken the lead in these special privileges in the past, but other countries have had the benefit of them. The United States never asked special concessions, but United States Merchants have built up their businesses under the protection of British arms and British law. (Applause.) This criticism of Britain sending out a force to protect her nationals, to endeavour to give them security of life and property has reached its culmination in the disgraceful speech of Mr. Wheatley, Labor member of Parliament, the other day, and everybody filled with pride at the reply of Lord Birkenhead when he said it was our proud boast in the days before Wheatley that all those were English who stood for England, and no English life should be imperilled without the resources of the Empire being invoked to his assistance. (Applause.) This was but the echo of those splendid words of Palmerston three generations earlier, words which are looked upon by thousands of Britishers in the far-flung outposts of the earth as their Magna Charta of security, and sacred symbol of safety. It was on the occasion of an unprovoked attack by a Greek on a Gibraltar Jew who was a British subject, and Palmerston was defending the policy of protecting him. These were his words : "As a Roman in the days of old counted himself free from attack and free from molestation when he could say *Civis Romanus sum*, so also every British subject, in whatever land he may be, shall feel confidence that the watchful eye and the strong arm of England will protect him against injustice and wrong." (Applause.)

The present situation is not hopeless by any means. Those who think that because Britain has sent more than twenty thousand men to the Far East to protect her subjects, a war is likely to break out, are deceived. Twenty thousand men would be useless in any sort of a campaign in the Yangtse valley. The Cantonese know that. If they have criticized our policy, it is to gain face with their own people, not because they think we have any offensive plans in view. Twenty thousand men, as you could see from a map, could barely protect the great investments of British capital, and the British citizens in the Shanghai settlement. It should be a matter of pride that others, including the United States, are allowing their marines to stay aboard ships while their citizens are protected by British guns and British forces. (Applause.)

One important matter in the present situation is the crumbling of the morthern military alliance under the pressure of the Nationalist armies. As you will see from the map I have here (map displayed), the Nationalist Party, who a few months ago were despised and looked upon as impossible as future conquerors of China, as a merely sectional party, have now gained control over nearly two-thirds of China. They marched over the most difficult country in Honan province, covering long distances where they had no railways to help them, and defeated armies much superior in equipment and strength. They advanced on cities in the Yantse valley, and by capturing these they immediately called the attention of the world to themselves and their success. The honor for their success was not due to the brilliant military genius Chiang Kai-shek, or the Russian officers who are his advisors, but to the fact that the Nationalist sentiment, started by Yuan Shih-kai had begun to sift into the hearts of the Chinese, and it is foolish to disregard the apparent fact that about ninety-five per cent. of the Chinese to-day stand whole-heartedly behind the principles of the more conservative side of the Nationalist party. There is not any sympathy with the Northern leaders at all. Those who fight, fight for their bread and butter, and because they are forced by press-gangs, and under threat of death. The Northern alliance is crumbling bit by bit. Wu Pei-fu, one of the greatest leaders, is now eliminated. Sun Chuang-fang, the lord of five provinces, is also eliminated, and is going into retirement with the large fortune he has amassed. And the other Northern leaders, formerly bandits, are the only ones who are left now to face this difficult situation in the south. Furthermore, those of you who are military men will see that this gradual change is becoming more and more in favor of the Cantonese. Feng-Yu-hsiang, the military victor of a year ago is now with twenty thousand men on the borders of Honan, ready to strike when they advance southward, and cut off their retreat. My father wrote to me recently that his army of twenty thousand men is almost as disciplined as his old army of thirty thousand. He is one of the conservative wing of the Chinese army,.and those who have read of his anti-foreign and anti-Christian spirit should remember that this has probably come from those who have personal animosity against him. There is no man so greatly spoken against by his enemies or so highly spoken of by his friends as Feng. If he throws in his influence on the side of justice and proper and reasonable distribution of our rights, probably the future will be bright with hope, and peace and security of life and property will take the place of the present chaotic atmosphere.

Those who have been studying the Chinese situation feel confident—and this includes, I think, the feeling of the British Foreign Office—that within six months at the most the Chinese Nationalist party will probably control the whole of China, and we hope, as has been the history of the past—for examples from the past give us many cases of this—that power will give them greater conservatism and greater reasonableness; and when they find their weapon of terror is no longer needed they will be more reasonable and just in their demands, and we will be able to sit around the council table without the danger of racial animosity and hatred spoiling any decision that may be reached.

It would be well to remember, in closing, the warning words of Sir John Jordan, uttered in England two years ago. They were his last public utterance. He was Britain's greatest ambassador to the Court of Pekin, and for many years his sagacity and foresight and profound knowledge of Chinese thought and history won him a high place in the praise and esteem of both Chinese and foreigners, so that when his death was announced, it was as widely mourned in the Land of the Blue Gown as in Britain. These were his words: "Let us remember that the new China, arising in all the equality of her sovereign rights, having her place at the council table of the world, is not only Britain's opportunity but Britain's responsibility, for she holds within her hand the fateful gift of peace or war in Asia." (Applause.)

The thanks of the club was tendered by Mr. Arthur Hewitt.

CANADA'S HERITAGE OF BRITISH TRADITIONS

AN ADDRESS BY THE VERY REV. THE DEAN OF WINDSOR, DR. A. V. BAILLIE, C.V.O., F.R.S.A.

(Links of Empire Series)

March 7th, 1927

The Dean was introduced by the President, Col Fraser, and was received enthusiastically by the audience. He spoke as follows :

MR. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN,—I started from England with a very modest estimate of my capacity for public speaking. I am rapidly becoming convinced that public speaking is a thing that is turned on like a barrel organ whenever it is required, if you get sufficient practice. I have not yet spoken at breakfast, but otherwise—(sentence drowned in applause.) Now, gentlemen, it is a very great pleasure to be present here to-day, because a club of this sort is naturally a very congenial atmosphere to anyone from the Old Country, who is looking at the life of this continent with interest and regard. You are those who definitely value connection with the Old Country. (Hear, hear, and applause.) Now we have seen a great deal throughout the whole continent, and the interest—I may say the enthusiasm—that has followed us has been very remarkable. People have told us in all sorts of places that they never remember anything that stirred the place, which ever it was, as much as this has done. Now that is a sign that there is in this country a real love for and affection for the Old Country; because, though we have a really quite adequate consciousness of our own virtues—(Laughter)—we do not believe that this enthusiasm is simply caused by them. We believe it has come from the fact that we represent in people's minds, through Westminster and Windsor, those things which are connected with the Old Country in England, and which are obviously dear to a very large part of the population of this northern part of America. That, of course, is a very happy feeling to us at home. And, naturally, I have also been trying to think what is the special advantage to you here in Canada of that connection.

I do not know anything about politics. I used to think that I might possibly come day understand something about it, but I have outgrown the idea. (Applause and laughter). I have no doubt there are very strong political reasons for the union; that is not my affair. But where I think the real value is, is that it preserves the tradition of English life as a living tradition in your national life. All these things out of which you have sprung, that long story of development with its triumphs and its glories and its mistakes, is part of your inheritance, and I believe that that is of very great value to everybody. I do not know if you have ever noticed it, that if you ask anybody which are the two countries which seem to have least power of understanding other countries and their outlook, the two countries always mentioned are France and the States. Now you will notice that both those countries severed their connection with the past in comparatively modern times. If you travel in France where there are great remains of antiquity, you will never find those remains of antiquity still living things associated with the life of to-day. The ancient buildings and all the things, are tabulated museum pieces, part of a dead past, but the actual life of to-day in France, its sentiments, its thoughts, its real developments, dates from the Revolution and Napoleon. It is extraordinary how little the previous France consciously affects the minds of people or the thought of people in France. In the same way in the States, Anglo-Saxons of America like to have a sentimental feeling about cathedrals and ancient buildings in England, and to say that they have a link with them through their fathers, but in practice, if you go through the States you will find that all national consciousness begins at the Independence. Now that seems to me to point to a very real fact, that if you lose contact with your past, it tends to narrow your outlook and prevent your having real sympathy and understanding of other people outside. I believe it is so in individual life; I believe the people who are broadest in their sympathy, and largest in their understanding are people who are fully conscious of what they came out of, of their past, of their family, of their associations, of all the things that have made them. And the people who cut that off, and, so to speak, start life on their own, become narrow, less able to feel and understand bonds of sympathy with other people around them. Now if you here, rather cut off from Europe, with only one near neighbor, had not the background of English, and, I may say, Scottish, life and history behind you, if you thought of yourselves simply as Canadians, you might be, and you would be, an extremely efficient and an extremely active people, very likely you would make a great prosperous country, but I feel absolutely certain that the experience of the world shows that you would become narrow, in your outlook, more self-centred in your view of life, and that in becoming so you would lose much which makes life most valuable and most interesting. (Applause). As it is, you have personal links, you have associations; if you go back, you feel that it is going home. A banker in Edmonton said to me the other day, "I am a Newfoundland man, I know families who have been in Newfoundland for nearly three hundred years, and still if they talk of going to England they talk of going home." I believe that is an intensely valuable thing; and there is no reason that it should limit the independence or the development of Canada. Only a fool would wish to limit that. Everyone who is interested in our race must glory in the signs of independence, if the independence is not a breaking of the ties of sympathy, and associations of affection, and a remembrance of the past. We are very much in the state in which lots of us who are parents have been through, or are going through. There was a time when we had to control our children, and train them and discipline them. The difficult stage is the age when you have got to gradually free them and yourself from that kind of connection and substitute for it freedom of intercourse and freedom of development for the children. If you can succeed, then they will get, and do get, the strength that comes from independence of mind in the development of their own life, and you will get enriched by the fuller life they live and the richer understanding which they gain in their minds.—(Applause)—and the association into which you enter. When you have attained that, it is one of the best associations that fathers and sons can attain, and the father, instead of missing his power of regulating the life of his son, takes infinite pride in seeing his son trying to regulate his own, and trying to make a life for himself. He is ready, he is there if his son wants advice, he is there if he wants sympathy, he is there if he wants anything, but if he is wise he does not act, he does not try to regulate, he waits till the son comes to him. Now we are as a nation going through that. Our children in all parts of the world are getting to their full manhood. They are getting to the time when more and more they have got to be independent in the management of their own affairs and the development of their own life. Through that period the important things is to retain the ties of affection and the ties of sympathy, so that the free community of nations may be a thing that lives and is real; not by artificial ties that politicians make, but by the deeper ties of mutual understanding and sense of the common possession of a great heritage of the past. (Applause). You are already very distinct in your Canadian personality as a nation. You are not as distinct from England as you are from your neighbors over the way. From the very first time I crossed the border from the States I was struck to an extent I could not have believed with the complete difference of the mental atmosphere of Canada from that of the States. (Hear, hear, and applause). And I am more struck this time. But you, though, are developing, and will develop and must develop an individuality of your own, and, what is more, that ought to be a fuller, richer thing than the mere British part of you. You are getting in other races; you are only doing what England herself did at the beginning. England was not the development of a single race, but the gradual welding into one of races who all brought their different characteristics to the common stock, and who, as time went on, in the sense of common nationality forgot their separate origins in the name of Englishmen. And yet they contributed, and they brought the difference of their gifts. The Saxons were a great people but they had not great gifts of government. The Normans had great gifts of government. They tended to tyranize in other countries but they were directed by the inherent sense of freedom in the Saxon stock. Every race brought its own part, and bit by bit they became one great nation, richer for all the elements that came into it. You have the chance of the same thing. Then you have another chance, it seems to me, of infinite importance. I do not believe that any race continues to develop great minds, which becomes dominated entirely or mainly by town thought. All the great supply of great minds in nations have come from the background of the soil of the country. (Applause). Nearly all the nations of the world are becoming town nations to an increasing degree and in that losing this particular element and getting more commonplace of mind. You, if you develop rightly, must have an immense agricultural population who should have real self-respect, as the men who are carrying out one of the finest and greatest industries of the world. And with that as a background to your active town life,—to the populations that grow with the growth of your mines, fisheries, lumber camps, and so on, to all the different elements that go to make Canada, you ought to be able to rear a people which will once more stand out as a nation of great minds and great leaders, and if you do, your influence in the world in the future, as other nations are losing that particular quality, will be a marvelous influence, and an influence which will be and should be, if you will remember the traditions of your own country,—an instrument of enormous value to the whole world. I have become almost obsessed in my enthusiasm about Canada and its future. (Applause). I dare say I shall get a certain amount of cooling down after I get back home,—(Laughter)—but I hope not too much, because I want to remain with Canada as the chief interest of my life. I am no longer young, it is no use now diffusing my interest over many things, and I feel I should like to do all I can for the rest of my life,—to do what is possible, to help in what I believe is one of the most splendid things that can be done. I believe we have that to give: in your association with the Old Country, that certainty of tradition, that gradual development of institutions, that long record of give and take between man and man, all the things that have made England interesting, all those things can be and should be of value to you if you keep them in your memory while you are developing the new conditions and the new activities and the new possibilities of your great life in this great continent. I thank you very much for giving me attention, and I hope that it will not be the last time when I will have the opportunity of meeting many of the citizens of Toronto. (Hear, hear, and applause).

The thanks of the Club were tendered to the Speaker by THE MOST REVEREND DR. WORRELL, the Archbishop of Nova Scotia, who also was a guest of the Club on this occasion.

APPEALS TO THE PRIVY COUNCIL

AN ADDRESS BY THE HONOURABLE WILLIAM RENWICK RIDDELL, LL.D., D.C.L., F.R.S.C., etc.
JUSTICE OF APPEAL, ONTARIO.

(Links of Empire Series)

17th March, 1927.

The President introduced the learned lecturer who said:—I have been asked to give the Empire Club some account of the Privy Council, especially in relation to appeals from "the British Dominions beyond the Seas"—with a reference to some Canadian cases of interest or importance.

So much has recently been printed by certain sections of our Press, that it may be well to say something historically of the Privy Council and the theory and basis of its appellate jurisdiction.

It is to be remembered that in all but one (1)* of the Provinces of Canada, the foundation of all the law is the Common Law of England—and in all the Provinces, the Constitutional Law is based upon that of England.

From time immemorial in England it was the duty of the King to see to it that his subjects suffered no injustice from his Judges, or others. Whatever may have been the primeval practice, when history begins it was already impossible for the King to perform this duty and make the investigations necessary in person—he could not sit in the gates and judge his people.

He selected such of his subjects as he chose, and so formed his Council. With this Council he generally sat and, in form at least, considered with them affairs of State including appeals made to him of injustice done by Courts or other agency. He might, indeed, proceed on his own views of the merits and requirements of the case and sometimes did so.

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* For notes to the text of this address see pp. 81-85.

This, the original King's Council, has often been called the Privy Council; but recent investigations seem to show that the appellation "Privy Council" is not proper until well within Tudor times. (2)

This Council had a varied history: We find it sometimes almost all-powerful, in the time of the last Lancastrian King it almost suffered shipwreck:—"owing to the incapacity of Henry VI. . . . Suffolk used his influence over the weak mind of the King much in the same way as Northumberland did a century later. . . . in 1550 when Edward VI was twelve years old."

However, it is reasonably certain that both Edward IV and Richard III had fairly efficient Councils.

It must not be supposed that this Council—the Magnum Consilium, Consilium Regium—had no other than judicial or *quasi*-judicial duties. It was a part of the King's Household and was to advise the King on all matters administrative, legislative, judicial, national and international.

In matters judicial, as a rule, the Judges, or some of them, were consulted as also were the King's Attorney and Serjeants at Law: they, however, acted or advised only and did not decide.

When the king was at Westminster, the Council sat at the White Hall, south-west of Westminster Hall, or the Starred Chamber, the *Camera Stellata,* in the Palace of Westminster. (3)

In the Council the King had his Court—Rex habet curiam suam in consilio suo—and from its sitting in the Starred Chamber it was not infrequently called the Court of Star Chamber or simply the Star Chamber.

The first Tudor King, Henry VII, made a very important change: he had an Act passed, the Act (1486) 3 Henry VII, Cap. 1, which in the copy from the Rolls of Parliament printed in the *Statutes of the Realm* is intituled "Pro Camera Stellata." (4)

This is "An Acte geving the Court of Star Chamber authority to punnysshe dyvers mysdemeanors"—it gave authority to "the Chanceller and Tresorer of England . . . and Kepyr of the Kynges Pryvye Seall or too of theym, calling to hym a Bisshopp and a temporall Lord of the Kynges Most Honorable Councell and the too chyeff Justices of the Kynges Benche and, Comyn Place . . . or other too Chyeff Justices in their absence. . ", to call before them by Writ or Privy Seal anyone charged by Bill or Information of "eny mysbehavyng" in the way of "unlawful mayntenannces, gevying of lyveres. . . . embraciaries . . . ontrue demeanynges of Shrevys in makyng of panelles and other ontrewe retournes . . . takyng of money by jurreys . . . great riots and unlawful assemblez . . . " The "misdoers" could be punished by this Court "after their demerites after the forme and effecte of Statutes . . . in like maner and forme as . . . if they were thereof convycte after the due ordre of the lawe . . ."

The "mysbehavyng afore rehersed", in which the Court of Star Chamber was thus given jurisdiction, shows wherein consisted much of jurisdiction previously exercised by the King's Council—interference with and intimation of the regular Courts of Justice by noblemen in favor of their retainers, actual or pretended, partial conduct of Sheriffs, bribery of juries, riots in or near Courts, etc., whereby "the Polyce and good rule of the realm is almost subdued, and for the nowne punyshement of this inconvenience and by occasion of the premyssis nothyng or litell may be found by enquerry, wherby the Lawes of the land in execucion may take litell effecte to the encies of murdres, roberies, perjuries and unsuerties of all men lyvyng and losses of their landes and goodes."

That there was frequent interference with the Courts of Justice by "great men" and that often the best assurance for the safety of life, limb and property was to be found in some powerful nobleman's protection evidenced by "lyveres, signs and tokyns," is all too certain: the regularising of a body with jurisdiction to deal with abuses of such kind,—forming a Court with Writs and other regular process—was undoubtedly a sane and laudable measure. And had this Court of Star Chamber kept to its original functions, it would have earned respect, and the infamous connotation now attached to the name would not have arisen.

It was useful; as is shown by extant records, it functioned as a settled Court of Justice and did good work in its proper field. (5) Indeed, Hallam long ago said of it: "It might in a certain sense be called a Committee of that body" (*i.e.* of the Privy Council), consequently it may with little impropriety be considered the original "Judicial Committee of the Privy Council." (6)

While the Court of Star Chamber sat at fairly short intervals when occasion required, the King's Council was not wholly effete; it continued to sit from time to time independently of the Court of the Star Chamber. Apparently it was in the reign of Henry VIII that the Great Council, the Magnum Consilium, ceased to be summoned : an inner ring grew up in the Great Council in that reign which is properly called the "Privy Council" —a name which still continues—this was properly an executive and administrative body.

In the reign of Edward VI in 1550 the authority of this Privy Council was by the influence and machinations of the Duke of Northumberland much impaired: but it regained and increased its power and importance in the succeeding reigns.

In the times of the first Stuart Kings, James I and Charles I, the executive Privy Council and the judicial Star Chamber were practically identical—their excesses are historical. At length the people of England could stand the tyranny no longer; and in 1640 was passed the famous Act, 16 Car. I, cap. 10, entituled : An Act for the Regulating of the Privy Council and for taking away the Court commonly called the Star Chamber."

This Act by section 3, directed that the Court commonly called the Star Chamber should from and after August 1, 1641, be abolished and its power and authority absolutely revoked and made void. So that the Star Chamber, what may be called the original of the "Judicial Committee of the Privy Council" erected in 1487 by Statute of 3 Hen. VII, cap. 1, came to an end. Section 5 of the Act of 1640 provided that "neither his Majesty nor his Privy Council have or ought to have any jurisdiction, power or authority . . . to examine or draw into question, determine or dispose of the Lands, Tenements, Hereditaments, Goods or Chattels of any of the Subjects of this Kingdom, but that the same ought to be tried and determined in the ordinary Courts of Justice and by the ordinary Course of Law." Section 3 having abolished the only Court of Privy Councillors, there has been no Court in the Privy Council since—either of the Privy Council or of any of the Committees: There are no longer Writs of Subpoena, no Privy Seals calling anyone before it. The members of the Judicial Committee do not, to-day, sit as Judges nor are they robed as Judges—they call themselves a Board; they sit as Committeemen to advise, not as Judges to decide, and are garbed as ordinary gentlemen. But the prohibition in section 5 is against meddling with the property of "Subjects of this Kingdom" (7) and does not extend to the subjects of his Majesty, not of that Kingdom—the right to take grievances to the foot of the throne was taken away from Englishmen in the Kingdom of England but continued for all subjects outside the Kingdom, *e.g.*, the Channel Islands. The Channel Island sent the first appeals in the 17th Century: but early in the 18th Century, appeals began to come in to the King in considerable numbers from the Colonial Courts of the American Colonies, and these kept up until the eve of the Revolution.

Before Confederation, there were appeals to the Sovereign from all the Colonies which were united in the Dominion of Canada in 1867: and when the compact was made for these Colonies by their representatives, which was put in legal and binding form by The British North America Act of 1867, it was decided *sub silentio* to leave to Canadians that right intact. If and when Canadians decide through their Parliament that the right should be taken away, it requires but a representation of that kind to effect the abolition without delay, trouble or expense. For reasons which seemed to them good, the Canadians who framed the written Constitution of Canada considered it proper that the new Dominion could not change its Constitution by its own legislation; but a request for a change has always been immediately acceded to without question or debate. (8) I shall return to this subject later.

All applications by way of appeal are technically to the King—"at the Foot of the Throne"—but for centuries the Sovereign has not personally interfered; the applications in the form of Petitions go to the Privy Council.

Originally dealt with by the whole Council, a system of Committees gradually developed. At first these Committees, often with sub-Committees, were temporary and *pro hâc vice*: but in 1660, a quasi-permanent Committee was formed to deal with the American Colonies: it was to sit twice a week "to receive, heare, examine, and deliberate upon any Petitions, propositions, memorialls or other Addresses which shalbee presented or brought in by any person or persons concerninge the Plantations, as well in the Continent of America: And from tyme to tyme make their Report to this Board of their proceedings." This was in effect a Standing Committee: "it assumed entire control of Trade and Plantation affairs in 1675, a control which it exercised until 1696" (9) This Committee was officially known as "The Right Honourable the Lords of the Committee for Trade and Plantations."

After the Revolution of 1688, the appeals increasing, it was in 1691 ordered "That all appeals be heard as formerly by the Committee who are to report the matters so heard by them and with their opinion thereon to the King in Council."

It is not necessary here to give a full account of changes made in detail: When Canada became British *de facto* in 1759-60, the system was in full operation. A Petition complaining of a Colonial Court was drawn up addressed to the King: this was read, or at least presented to, the Privy Council, and by the Privy Council referred to a Standing Committee generally called "The

Committee for Trade and Plantations" or, shortly, "The Board of Trade." This Committee, if a question of law was involved, generally called for the advice of the Law Officers of the Crown, *i.e.*, the Attorney-General and Solicitor-General in the Common Law, and the Advocate-General in the Civil and Admiralty Law. If necessary the parties were heard: the Committee decided the question and reported to the Privy Council, whereupon an Order in Council was made.

The constitution of the Committee to pass upon appeals—the "Judicial Committee of the Privy Council"—was fixed by Statute in 1833, 3, 4 William IV, Cap. 41: before that Statute Members of the Committee were all inhabitants of the British Isles; but it was provided by the Act that two ex-Judges from India or beyond the Seas might be added: in 1876, by the Act 39, 40 Vict., Cap 59, s. 14(Imp.) a Provision was made for four Lords of Appeal in Ordinary who, if Privy Councillors, became members of the Judicial Committee, while in 1895 by the Act, 58, 59 Vict., Cap. 44 (Imp.) it was provided that any Judge or ex-Judge of the Supreme Court of Canada or any Superior Court in any Province of Canada, of the Provinces of Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, Cape of Good Hope or Natal who should be a Privy Councillor should also be a member of the Judicial Committee.

In 1908 by the Act, 8 Edw. VII, Cap. 51, this provision was extended to Judges and ex-Judges of any High Court in India, the Transvaal and Orange River Colony—and in 1913 by the Act, 3, 4 Geo. V., Cap. 21, two further Lords of Appeal were added—and it was provided that the maximum number of Judges or ex-Judges from Canada, etc., was to be seven instead of five as fixed by the Act in 1895.

We must always distinguish between the Privy Council and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The Privy Council is composed of some four hundred persons, members of the existing and past British Governments, the Archbishops, the Bishop of London, many Peers, some Dominion Statesmen and

Judges, and many persons who have been given the rank in appreciation of political, literary or scientific merit or services. They have all the title "Right Honourable." The Privy Council as a whole is rarely called; the former functions of the Privy Council are practically all performed by the Cabinet. We have a *faíenant* Privy Council in Canada of much the same kind. The Judicial Committee, however, so far as Canada is concerned, consists of the Presidents of the Council, present and past; the Lords Chancellors, present and past; all the Judges; six Lords of Appeal, and not more than seven Judges or ex-Judges from India or the Dominions. Four Canadians, Members of the Privy Council, have the proper qualifications and two have sat in the Judicial Committee.

In an Address I made in 1909, I gave the following account of the jurisdiction and practice of this Committee:

"At the present time this Judicial Committee hears appeals in English cases only in Ecclesiastical matters. Upon every appeal of this character, at least three Bishops must sit as Assessors, under the provisions of a rule made in 1876. The ultimate appeal in other matters goes to the House of Lords. In Scottish and Irish matters the Committee does not exercise any appellate jurisdiction whatever. But from Courts all over the world, wherever the map is marked with red, come appeals. In Europe, from the Channel Islands, the Isle of Man, Gibralter and Malta as well as from Cyprus; in Africa from the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, the former Free States, the Gold Coast, Sierra Leone, Zululand, Rhodesia, St. Helena, Lagos, Basutoland, Bechuanaland, the Falkland Islands, Mauritius, Gambia, Griqualand and other "lands" more or less unknown: in Asia from Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, the N.W. Territory, Aden, Assam, Beluchistan, Burmah, Upper and Lower Oudh, Punjaub, Ceylon, Mauritius, Hong Kong, Borneo, Labuan; in Australasia, Australia, New Guinea, Fiji, New Zealand, Norfolk and Pitcairn Islands and in America from Canada and her Provinces—Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia, and from Newfoundland, Bermuda, the Bahamas, Jamaica, British Honduras and from Guiana in South America and many another British Island lying in the Caribbean Sea.

"The laws of a score of self governing communities must be interpreted, the English Common Law of the English-speaking colonies modified by local Statutes; in Quebec the Coutume de Paris with similar modification; the many varying and various laws of the many East Indian peoples, the Roman Dutch law of the South of Africa, the still more complex law of Malta—all these and more come before that Assembly of Jurists.

"I have said more than once that this body is not a Court, it is a Committee appointed to consider certain legal questions and report thereon to His Majesty's Privy Council. There is no instance in which all those who are qualified actually sit ; I have never seen more than seven—nor less than four; three exclusive of the Lord President constitute a quorum. These Privy Councillors are clothed as ordinary English gentlemen without official garb of any kind, although Counsel appearing before them must wear the black gown, silk or stuff, according—as he is or is not a King's Counsel, bands of white lawn and wig of horse hair. In Ontario, we wear all these except the wig, but I found that one becomes accustomed to the wig very quickly and very easily. I presume it strikes the Englishman with the same sense of incongruity when he enters our Courts and sees Judges and Counsel with gown and white bands but without wig as it does an Ontarian when he sees certain American Judges sitting in Court with a gown but also with a black necktie.

"Being a Committee and not a Court, the decision is a report, no dissent is expressed—one of the Committee gives the opinion of the Committee—and no one knows in any case how the members of the Committee were divided or if they were divided. While the House of Lords is bound by its own judgments, such is not the case with the Judicial Committee—the Committee may and sometimes does decline to follow the law as laid down in previous cases. Their Lordships consider themselves at liberty and, indeed, bound to examine the reasons upon which a previous decision was arrived at, and if they find themselves forced to dissent from those reasons, to decide upon their own view of the law.

"The Committee sits in an old building on the north side of Downing Street, Westminster, not far from the Abbey and the Parliament Buildings. The Board is on the floor toward the middle of the room; the Counsel upon a raised platform to the east side, communicating with the robing rooms, etc. The platform is accommodated with a small reading desk upon which Counsel addressing the Board may rest his books and papers—all the proceedings in the Courts below are in printed form as also the points relied upon by each side. Whenever a case cited is not thoroughly well-known the report is brought at once from the book cases lining the walls of the room; and each point as a rule is thoroughly threshed out at the time by Court and Counsel, so that even if judgment should be reserved, Counsel generally know pretty well what the result will be.

"In addition to appeals heard, there are a great many petitions for leave to appeal. These are generally disposed of on the spot—I have seen four in one short forenoon.

" And what kind of cases come before them ? I take up a June number of the Law Reports, Appeal Cases, and find the following: an appeal from New South Wales upon the construction of a Will; from the Supreme Court of Nova Scotia as to the interpretation of a contract involving millions; from the Supreme Court of Hong-Kong, China, as to whether certain alleged perjurers could be committed to prison without certain formalities; from the Straits Settlements as to the effect of an Ordinance forbidding the importation of chandu; from the Supreme Court of Canada as to whether the Grand Trunk Railway must carry passengers third-class between Toronto and Montreal for one penny a mile as provided by the Statute of 1852; from the Court of King's Bench, Quebec, as to the right of a corporation owning certain patents to enforce the provision in a lease of machines built on the patents, that no other machines should be used by the lessee; from the High Court of Australia in respect of the construction of a Customs' Act; from the Cape of Good Hope on the construction of a Will; from the High Court of Australia as to the rights of a civil servant to compensation on retirement; from the Supreme Court of Canada as to the admissibility of a railway map upon a trial and the effect of its admission; from the Straits Settlements (the Settlement of Penang) upon a bill of lading; from the Supreme Court of Ceylon as to the illegitimacy of children procreated in adultery (this depends upon the Roman-Dutch law, the common law of Ceylon.)

"I have not said anything about the cases from India, as these appear in another series and not in the Appeal Cases. It may, however, be of interest to mention some of these cases reported in 1906, (the report I have at hand).

"Appeal from the Judicial Commissioner of Oudh as to the power of a Hindo widow to execute deed to her son-in-law under the custom amongst certain Chattris; from the High Court at Allahabad as to the effect of words "malik wa khud ikhtiyar" in a deed of gift; from the High Court of Bengal as to whether a plaint must be stamped; from the Judicial Commissioner of the Central Province as to the construction of a foreclosure decree; from the Chief Court of Lower Burma as to Buddhist marriage and the status of "monkey wife"; from the High Court of Bengal whether the English law as to champerty and maintenance is part of the law of India; and again as to the Mahomedan law of gift under apprehension of death (our donatio mortis causa,) and again as to gifts to daughters and their sons; from the Chief Court of the Punjaub in respect of a partition of the property of a Hindu Joint family; from the Supreme Court of Mauritius as to certain wakf properties in Port Louis bought for the Mahomedan congregation of the Soonee School, being composed of Indian immigrants from Cutch, Hallal and Surat, he Hallaye and Soortee classes quarreling with the Cutchees; from Lucknow as to family records proving pedigree, and the rights of a sister's son; from the High Court at Madras as to the rights of the Nadar or Shanar caste to worship in the temple of Shiva at Kamudi; from the High Court at Bengal again as to jhum rights, *i.e.*, rights in and in wild and jungly tracts on the frontier which were never brought under settlement by the Revenue authorities but were left waste to be occupied by 'squatters'; from the Chief Court of the Punjuab in a suit by Hindu minors to set aside their father's deed of sale on the ground that the lands were ancestral.

"With all these varied forms of action, all the different systems of law to be considered—Common Law, civil law, Mahomedan law, Roman-Dutch law, and all the bewildering customs of India, there is no delay in giving judgment. The case is a rare one in which the appellant does not know his fate within a few weeks at the outside. A case may start in Toronto to-day and be finally decided by the Privy Council in a year or eighteen months from now. No delay is tolerated—cases do not dally along year after year by arrangement of Counsel—an appeal is decided promptly. The great eminence of their Lordships—their unquestioned ability and impartiality—make their decisions worthy of all respect; and they are respected."

It is now time to turn to cases from Canada: and I give a few very early and one more modern:

When in September, 1759, after Wolfe's victory, Quebec was surrendered, the surrender carried only the City and a non-defined territory in its immediate vicinity—de Ramazey, the French Commander, was only "Commandant Les Hautes et Basse Ville de Quebec." De Vaudreuil in Montreal was "Gouverneur et Lieutenant General pour Le Roy en Canada"; and when he surrendered Montreal in September, 1760, all Canada went with it. (11)

But until the Treaty of Paris, 1763, (12) the country was held by the sword only and the rule was Military: it was not until 1764 that the Civil Courts came into existence—the interval from the conquest is generally called La Régime Militaire or Le Régne Militaire.

But even before the creation of the Civil Courts, the people of Canada were subjects of the King, while British subjects who came to Canada did not lose their status, and both classes were entitled to his protection.

The first case, after the conquest of Canada, of an appeal to the Privy Council arising out of transactions in Quebec was not an appeal from a Quebec Court, but from a Court in Nova Scotia which was *de jure* as well as *de facto*, British territory.

Curiously enough, it savoured of what we now call "boot-legging."

A snow (13) called the *Two Brothers*, built in the American Plantations, was owned by James and John Le Roy of Guernsey and commanded by Nicholas Le Mesurier of the same island. James Le Roy and James Major (also of Guernsey) loaded the snow in May, 1761, at Guernsey with Wine, Brandy, Cider and Stockings with other things for Quebec. Sailing from Guernsey, May 17, she arrived at "The Isle of Beck" (14) in the St. Lawrence, July 19; and was prevented from going higher by contrary winds. Major who acted as Supercargo, landed and went to Quebec to see General James Murray, the Governor of Quebec. On Major's request, Murray, July 29, gave written permission to land the cargo (the Brandy excepted) and carry it to Quebec. August 1, Major began to unload the snow, when Captain Burnett of H.M.S. *Rochester* seized the snow and cargo, notwithstanding Murray's permission. He took his prize to Halifax, Nova Scotia, out of Murray's jurisdiction and libelled snow and cargo in the Vice-Admiralty there. Notwithstanding the contentions of law and fact of Captain Le Mesurier and Major, the Judge in Admiralty at Halifax, September 23, 1761, decreed the ship forfeited and ordered a public sale. Snow and cargo were sold, the net proceeds being £3178:12:7¼, Nova Scotia Currency (15) (say $12,714.50). Major for himself and James LeRoy and Le Mesuirier for the owners of the Ship, filed a Petition to the King in Council, June 2, 1762: this was referred to a Judicial Committee who reported, March 12, 1763, and March 16, 1763, the sentence was reversed and ship and cargo ordered to be restored.

The ultimate cause of this seizure was the same as the ultimate cause of the American Revolution itself. The former Empire of England (the Old British Empire) was built upon the model of the Roman Empire—the Colonies and Provinces were not considered to exist for the sake of the Colonists or Provincials but for the sake of the Mother Country—a theory wholly vanished in the New British Empire which rose on the ruins of the Old which was irretrievably destroyed by the American Revolution leaving no one to mourn but the reactionary and the *laudator temporis acti*.

England was not alone in this view—the other European Powers acted on the same principle and kept the trade of their overseas possessions for themselves.

The first Statute of importance in this connection is that passed by the Commonwealth, October 9, 1651, the famous Act of Navigation. This was chiefly aimed at Holland and was an Act really intended to improve the condition of English Shipping as it was said that out of forty ships engaged in the West-India trade, thirty-eight were Dutch. (16). It forbade the importation of any goods or commodities, the growth, production, or manufacture of Asia, Africa or America into England, Ireland or any English Plantation, etc., except in ships of England or her Plantations—a special provision being made for goods, the growth, etc., of Europe. Of course, this Act lost the force of law on the return of the Monarchy. But very shortly after the Restoration, in 1660, the matter was taken up and in that year was passed what is usually called "The Act of Navigation" to distinguish it from other Acts with the same object and policy: it is (1660) 12 Car. 2, Cap. 18; and its full name is, An Act for the Encouraging and Increasing of Shipping and Navigation. The provisions and much of the language of this Act are the same as those of the Act of 1651. This was supplemented three years afterwards by (1663) 15 Car. 2, Cap. 7, *An Act for the Encouragement of Trade.* This Act says bluntly, sec. 5.

"V. And in regard his Majesty's Plantations beyond the Seas are inhabited and peopled by his subjects of this his Kingdom of England; for the maintaining a greater Correspondence and Kindness between them, and keeping them in a firmer Dependence upon it, and rendring them yet more beneficial and advantageous unto it in the further Imployment and Increase of English Shipping and Seamen, Vent of English Woollen and other Manufactures and Commodities, rendring the Navigation to and from the same more safe and cheap, and making this Kingdom a Staple, not only of the Commodities of those Plantations, but also of the Commodities of other Countries and Places, for the supplying of them; and it being the Usage of other nations to keep their Plantations Trade to themselves."

This Act by sec. 6 enacted that "no Commodity of the Growth, Production or Manufacture of Europe shall be imported in any Land, Island, Plantation, Colony, Territory or Place to His Majesty belonging . . . in Asia, Africa or America . . . but what shall be laden and shipped . . . in English built Shipping . . . under Penalty of the Loss of all such Commodities . . . and . . . of the Ship . . . in which they are imported."

Immediately after passing The Act of Navigation the Lord Admiral was ordered to give it in charge to all the Commanders of the King's Ships specially to attend to the execution of this Act. As occasions called for it, similar orders were given to the rest of the King's Officers. (17)

The Act of 1696, 7, 8, Will. i. e. and Mar., Cap. 22, by sec. 2, forbade the importation of any goods into His Majesty's Colonies or Plantations unless the "built" was of England or Ireland or the Colonies or Plantations but in the latter case the Ship must be wholly owned by "the People thereof or any of them."

It was under these Acts that the seizure was made (18) —it was claimed that the goods were "of the growth production or manufacture of Europe" and that was admitted: it was not Plantation owned and that was admitted—then it was said that the law had been broken by the importation of these goods into a place at which such importation was prohibited.

The argument of the appellants in the Committee was "that the above Acts do not prohibit the importation of the growth, production or manufacture of Europe, in Ships properly Navagated into any of His Majesty's Dominions subdued by Conquest—for that during the present War Canada is not within the meaning of the Statutes, His Majesty not being restrained to rule it by any particular Laws, but according to his pleasure, and that the Government of Canada had, from its conquest, been under the terms of Capitulation by such Proclamations, Military Rules, Orders, and Regulations as His Majesty's Governor there had thought proper for the Service of His Majesty. That the General not only permitted the Importation of the Snow's Cargo (Brandys excepted) but the Sale thereof, and that if it had been His Majestys Pleasure that the Acts of Trade should extend to this new Conquest, the General would have been sworn to the observation thereof."

It was claimed that there was no breaking of bulk, no importation, until the permission of the Governor had been obtained.

What is meant by "Colony" or "plantation" in the legislation had, before the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713, been discussed in the case of Newfoundland: the Solicitor General, Sir John Hawles, (1695-1792), said that he would have thought Newfoundland was neither a Colony nor a Plantation of the King but for certain Statutes of the times of Charles II which expressly reckoned it among His Majesty's Plantations. (19)

Even taking the words "Territory or Place" as *ejusdem generis* with "Plantation, Colony", the Judge of the Vice Admiralty Court at Halifax cannot be blamed for finding that Quebec was a forbidden place for importing such goods in such a vessel.

The Privy Council, however, reversed the decision—Canada was not within the meaning of the words employed in the legislation, and did not become so until the formal Cession by the Treaty of Paris, 1763. (20).

The first appeal from a Quebec Court to the King-in-Council was brought in 1763 by William Johnstone, Captain-Lieutenant in H.M. Royal Regiment of Artillery, then in Quebec. Johnstone had bought certain Bills of Exchange from Sieur Houdin of Quebec; they were dishonored, and Johnstone sued Houdin, recovering in the Court of first instance; but on appeal to the Military Court at Quebec, that Court, August 22, 1762, reversed the trial Court : Johnstone then appealed to the King-in-Council.

Thoroughly to understand this case it will be necessary to explain the system of Courts. It is, of course, perfectly clear law that on the conquest of territory it becomes, *ipso facto*, under the sole governance of the King, and so continues until Parliament passes legislation relating to it—the King being part of the Parliament. (21.) Consequently, it rests with the King, or in practice, with his General or other representative, to erect such tribunals as seem to him proper. Accordingly, shortly after the surrender of Quebec, Murray, the British Commander, erected Courts of Justice for the maintenance of good order in the part of Canada under his control. After the Capitulation of Montreal in 1760, which carried with it the remainder of Canada, Amherst, the Commander-in-Chief, charged the Governors, whom he had placed over Montreal and Three Rivers, to authorize the Officers commanding the Militia in each parish or district to hear all complaints and settle them if he could, with all due justice and equity ; if he could not, then he was to send the parties to the Officer Commanding the Troops in his District. Murray in his part of the conquered country, October 31st, 1760, erected a Court of his own. Until the establishment of

Civil Government, effective in 1764, there were Courts of first instance, presided over by local Militia Officers, generally French-Canadian, with an appeal to a Military Court of British officers. Naturally, there was an appeal from this Court to His Majesty, Canada not being in the Kingdom of England.

When the time came for the institution of Civil Courts —for, of course, all these Courts were Military Courts— Murray by an Ordinance of September 17, 1764 (22), created a Court of King's Bench with full civil and criminal jurisdiction with an appeal to the Governor and Council in cases above £300, and to the King and Council in cases of the value of £500 sterling or upwards.

An Inferior Court was also erected by this Ordinance with similar appeals in cases where the said sums were in dispute.

And from the Courts of Quebec an appeal has always lain to the King-in-Council in proper cases. It is true that in the troublous times before the Canada or Constitutional Act of 1791, there was a movement looking to a different appellate tribunal. In a numerously signed Petition to the King from Quebec, 1783-4, one of the requests was "That Appeals from the Courts of Justice in this Province to the Crown be made to a Board of Council or Court of Appeals, composed of the Right Honourable the Lord Chancellor and the Judges of the Courts of Westminster Hall". The answer was that "This Article appears to cast a reflection wholly unmerited on the decisions of the Privy Council, and the proposal is certainly incompatible with the other duties of the persons named." (23)

Another case may be briefly mentioned :

In 1759, Johnstone bought of Anthony Peter Houdin, merchant, of Quebec, a Bill of Exchange for 60,000 livres due in 1761. He transferred it to John Ord, Jacob Rowe and William James, who sued in the King's Bench and recovered, August 19, 1765. An appeal was taken to the Governor and Council of Quebec, and it was successful April 18, 1766. The plaintiffs appealed to the King-in-Council, but did not prosecute the appeal; and it was dismissed for want of prosecution July 24, 1777.

The next case I shall mention convulsed early British Canada :

Thomas Walker, the hero and victim, was a merchant and a Justice of the Peace—an Englishman by birth but, from a long residence in Boston, infected with New England sentiments. In Montreal, in 1764, there was a quarrel between the Military and the Magistrates in respect of billetting, in which, be it said, the Magistrates seem to have been in the right. Walker committed Captain Payne to gaol, but he was delivered on *habeas corpus*. On December, 1764, when Walker was at supper, several persons armed and with their faces blacked or covered with crape, broke into his room and made "a violent assault and assassination" on him "leaving him for dead"—his ear was cut off and he received fifty-two contusions.

Several officers and soldiers of the 28th Regiment "were taken into Custody on the strongest presumptions of being Principals in this atrocious Act : certain Officers and Soldiers of Your Majesty's Twenty-Eighth Regiment, then quartered at Montreal, broke open the Jail, and in Defiance of all Law, set the Prisoners at Liberty, publickly threatening Death to all Persons who should make any further Enquiry into that affair."

The London merchants interested in Quebec, complaining that the Governor, Murray, and Lieutenant-Governor, Burton, had not done their full duty, brought the matter to the attention of the Privy Council, April 29, 1765, who, May 15, referred it to the Board of Trade who, through the Privy Council, called for a report from Governor Murray. Murray reported; and another Petition, this time from the British Merchants in Quebec, was lodged and all were referred to the Committee.

It appeared that the accused persons had been again arrested—that a Commission of Oyer and Terminer had been regularly issued for the District of Montreal but recalled, so that they could not be tried in Montreal. Then a Commission of Oyer and Terminer was issued for the District of Quebec with a jury from the whole Province; and it was proposed to indict them there. The 28th had been removed from Montreal to Quebec; and, as was alleged, "in consequence thereof, not only from the great expense of travelling near two hundred Miles from home, but from the danger apprehended by the said Walker and his Witnesses on the Road of being way laid by the Soldiers of the said Twenty-Eighth Regiment, and in the Town of Quebec, surrounded by that Regiment then removed from Montreal, and Quartered at Quebec, He, the said Walker, and his Witnesses could not venture to attend the Trial of the said supposed Offenders there, whereby their punishment has been eluded."

Then a Special Commission of Oyer and Terminer was issued for a Court to sit at Three Rivers and try the offences alleged to have been committed at Montreal, by a Jury summoned from the whole Province at large.

A True Bill was found against one person for the assault on Walker, and five True Bills for the riot, prison breach and rescue. For want of witnesses, the former was acquitted, as were four of the latter, while one was found guilty of the riot only.

No wonder Their Lordships of the Committee were of "opinion that a new Commission (if it may be legally done) should be issued in such a manner as Your Majesty's Attorney and Solicitor General shall advise, for the Trial of the said supposed Offenders at Montreal; but as this matter is proper for the consideration of Your Majesty's Servants of the Law, the Lords of the Committee have referred it to Your Majesty's Attorney and Solicitor General for their Opinion thereupon."

Th Law Officers of the Crown—Charles Yorke, Attorney General, and William de Grey, Solicitor General, "being of opinion that the Governor of Quebec is fully authorized and impowered by His Commission and Instructions to appoint Courts of Oyer and Terminer within all the Districts of that Province, and that no Special Commission can be lawfully issued for a new Trial of those persons who had been indicted, tried and acquitted at the said Court held at Trois Rivieres : but as there is reason to believe there are several other Principal Offenders, who have not yet been apprehended or brought to tryal, the Committee think it advisable for Your Majesty to require Your Governor or Commander in Chief of the Province of Quebec to exert himself in causing a diligent search to be made after such Persons, bringing them to trial in due course of Law in the Vicinage of the Place, where the Offence was committed, and by a Jury of the said Vicinage." (24)

This was ordered by the Privy Council, November 22, 1765. So far the records of the Privy Council : but the story does not end there. In November, 1766, George Magovock, a discharged soldier from the 28th Foot, gave information that M. St. Luc la Corne, Captain Campbell of the 27th, Captain Disney of the 44th, Lieutenant Evans of the 28th, Joseph Howard, a Merchant, and Captain Fraser, Deputy Paymaster General, had been present at the assault upon Walker. They were arrested in their bed, sent to Quebec, placed in the Common Gaol, bail being denied, then returned to Montreal for trial.

The Grand Jury threw out the first Bill—that against Lieutenant Evans : Walker broke out in open and passionate abuse of the Grand Jury and they declared that they would not proceed with the other Bills with such monstrous charges against them. Francis Maseres, the Attorney General, was willing that they should be discharged, but the Chief Justice, William Hay, refused. Next morning, True Bills were brought in against Captain Disney on two charges, but no Bill was found as to the others, Disney's trial being proceeded with and he, proving an alibi, was acquitted. The Chief Justice thought the alibi abundantly established, and approved of the verdict.

So ended the Walker Scandal. (25)

Let us now turn to more recent events. I do not go into the long line of cases in which the respective powers of Dominion and Provinces were determined—the list is not yet complete, but I shall mention one case of dispute concerning territory between Dominion and Province.

It has a curious history. The original Province (or "Government") of Quebec formed by the Royal Proclamation of 1763, came as far west only as a line drawn from the southern end of Lake Nipissing to about the present Cornwall. By the Quebec Act of 1774, 14 George III, c. 83 (Imp.) the boundaries of the Province of Quebec went down along the River Ohio from the western boundary of Pennsylvania "to the banks of the Mississippi and Northward to the southern boundary of the Territory granted to the" Hudson Bay Company. In 1791, the enormous Province was divided into two Provinces, Upper Canada and Lower Canada, Upper Canada receiving all the territory west of a certain line.

By the British North America Act, 1867, the Province of Ontario was given the same limits as the former Province of Upper Canada. Not long afterwards, there arose a contention as to the western boundary : what was meant by "Northward" in the Quebec Act ? Did it mean due North or Northerly along the Mississippi? Ontario, through Sir Oliver Mowat, contended for the latter; the Dominion, through Sir John A. Macdonald, for the former, interpretation.

In 1870, by the Dominion Act, 35 Vic., Cap. 3, the Province of Manitoba was formed with its eastern boundary at the meridian of 96 degrees W.L. At once there was a movement in Ontario, the Government of that Province claiming that it went further west than 96 degrees W.L., although this had long been considered in fact about her western limit. Many communications passed between the Governments, but without result. Then, in 1876, an Act was passed (39 Vict., Cap. 21) extending the limits of Manitoba to the "westerly boundary of Ontario." The Dominion and Manitoba claimed that the westerly boundary was about six miles east of Port Arthur. Armed forces of the Provinces of Manitoba and Ontario took possession of Port Arthur, but the scandal was abated by an agreement to arbitrate, December 18th, 1883, by the Dominion and Province. Ontario named

William Buell Richards, Chief Justice of the Province, and when he became Chief Justice of Canada, his successor, Robert A. Harrison; the Dominion, Sir Francis Hincks, and the two Governments jointly, Sir Edward Thornton, the British Ambassador at Washington.

These Arbitrators made, August 3rd, 1878, a unanimous award in favour of the Ontario contention, which by this time was in reality limited to the generally recognized boundary. This was at once accepted by Ontario, but the Dominion refused to ratify the award. At length, in 1883, the two Provinces concerned agreed to submit to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council three questions : (1) whether the award was binding; (2) if not, what was the true boundary, and (3) what legislation was necessary to make the decision effectual.

The Judicial Committee, August 11th, 1884, decided (1) in the absence of Dominion legislation the award was not binding; (2) the award laid down the boundary correctly, and (3) Imperial legislation was desirable (without saying it was necessary).

The Imperial Act (1889), 52 and 53 Vic., Cap. 28, carried the decision into effect, and ended the controversy.

The case of the Labrador territory has just been decided, and is too fresh to require more than this passing mention; it indicates, however, the great advantage of such a tribunal.

I have been asked to give my view of the advisability of retaining the Appeal to the Judicial Committee : and as it is not a political question I venture to do so. It is to be remembered that the House of Lords is the final Court of Appeal for part of the Empire, that is, the British Isles, England, Scotland and part of Ireland, and the Judicial Committee for the remainder. The logical thing would be to unite these two Appellate Courts in one Imperial Court of Appeal, one Grand Supreme Court of the Empire—and that I have urged upon more than one Lord Chancellor. This course was recommended by the Imperial Conference of 1911, but it was not adopted although the two bodies are largely identical in composition. I have not been able to discover the objection—perhaps the innate conservatism of the British people has something to do with it. Until such a scheme is adopted I think that the Appeal should be retained. The value of the Judicial Committee in settling our Constitution everyone must admit : its value in determining private rights has not been universally admitted, but it has certainly been very considerable. It has moreover done much to keep the law of the whole Empire uniform. An important feature is the removal of the Judges from the local atmosphere. While the most important thing in any Court is that its decisions shall be right, it is not much less important that the litigants can see and must admit that they have had fair play from Judges without prejudice or prejudgment.

There is little disposition to accuse our Judges of intentional unfairness; but it is not unnatural for an unsuccessful suitor to think that local feeling and prejudice, past political and present social or religious associations, may have given their mind an unconscious bias and so deflected the judgment. I know of at least two cases now in litigation in which I am confident the losing party will not believe that he has had fair play by reason of such unconscious bias.

Is it not an immense advantage that the defeated litigant can have his case determined by Judges of the greatest ability, who have lived all their lives three thousand miles away, who have never known the local feeling and are innocent of any connection or association that could warp the judgment ?

Nor does it argue inferiority in Canadian Judges—an appeal lies from my Court to the Supreme Court of Canada : none of us feels himself branded as inferior on that account.

It is a matter upon which there may be an honest difference of opinion : and Canadians will settle the question as their best interests seem to demand. The question should be discussed on its merits and without heat. I earnestly protest against any view being made a test of loyalty to British connection—such a test would brand my very dear and honored friend, the late Sir William Meredith, as a traitor.

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(1) Of course Quebec, the ultimate basis of whose civil law is, since 1776, the Civil Law of Rome—her criminal law is based on the English Common Law and has been since 1763.

(2) Those interested may consult Bentwick's *Privy Council Practice*, 1926; Dr. A. F. Pollard's admirable articles in *The English Historical Review*, vol. 37 (July, 1922) "Council, Star Chamber and Privy Council under the Tudors," pp. 337, *sqq*, and (October, 1922), pp. 516, *sqq*; also *The Law Quarterly Review*, vol. 39 (January, 1923) pp. 1, 2; Professor Baldwin's *King's Council, passim*; the two volumes published by the Selden Society edited by I. S. Leadam, *Select Cases . . . in . . . the Court of Star Chamber*. Introduction; Hallam and Gneist, *Constitutional History of England*, are to be read with caution. The language quoted just below is from the first-named article, p. 342.

(*3*) This Star Chamber, Camera Stellata, was a room in the Palace at Westminster (why it was so called in uncertain, perhaps from the decorations on the ceiling; we have "Sterred Chambre," "Sterrid Chambre," "Starryd Chamber," "Sterne-chamere," "Sterre Chambre," "Chambre of Starres.")

(4) It must be borne in mind that the titles even in the official *Statutes at Large* are no part of the Old Acts: "Acts of Parliament . . . had no titles until the Sixteenth Century, and they have been invented for mediaeval legislation by subsequent editors": *37 Eng. Hist. Review*, p. 339 (n) 1.

(*5*) See the *Select Cases*, etc., mentioned in Note 1, *Supra*: Hudson: *Treatise of the Court of Star Chamber* (in Hargrave: *Collectanea Juridica*): Leadam: *Select Cases from the Court of Requests* (Selden Society); also the articles mentioned in Note 1, *supra*.

(6) Hallam: *The Constitutional History of England*, 4th edit., London, 1842, vol. 1, p. 53. The history of the Privy Council and Star Chamber has not been adequately written: I have given an outline sketch in my Address before the Missouri State Bar Association, September 17, 18, 1909: 1, *Essays and Addresses*.

(7) The language of sec. 5 of the Act is "of this Kingdom": Scotland was a separate Kingdom at the time and had its own Privy Council. Although England and Scotland were under the same King from the accession of James I in 1603, the Statute of 1 Jac. 1, c. 1, speaking of the "Union or rather . . . Reuniting of two mighty famous and ancient Kingdoms . . . of England and Scotland under one Imperial Crown"—yet they remained separate Kingdoms until May 1, 1707. In 1701, the Statute, 1 Ann St. 1, c. 14, provided for the appointment of Commissioners to arrange a Union with Scotland: and, in 1706, was passed the Act, 5 Ann. c. 8, which provided that from and after May 1, 1707, "The two Kingdoms of England and Scotland shall . . . be united in one Kingdom by the name of Great Britain." Ireland remained a separate Kingdom until January 1, 1801, when the United Kingdon of Great Britain and Ireland came into existence under the British Act, 39, 40, George III, c. 67, and the Irish Act, 40 George III, c. 38. Ireland did not wholly escape the Privy Council till 1877, 40, 41, Vic. c. 37, s. 86 (Imp.) since which Statute the House of Lords has been the only final Court of Appeal for Ireland.

(8) In my *The Canadian Constitution in Form and in Fact*, the Blumenthal Lectures, Columbia University, 1923, I gave (pp. 8-10) eight instances of Constitutional change since 1867: and say, p. 3, "There is . . . no difficulty in having an Amendment made if and when desired. An Address to the Sovereign is passed by both Houses of Parliament at Ottawa asking for the Amendment specified. According to the unwritten Constitution, the vote on the Address must be unanimous (or practically unanimous) or it will not be forwarded to London. When the Address is received by the Colonial Secretary in London, the desired Amendment to the B.N.A. Act is passed by the Imperial Parliament as of course and without debate. This is, in substance, simply legal validity to

an amendment agreed upon by the parties to the original contract, which they desire to amend."

(9) Professor C. M. Andrews has given an admirable account of the course of evolution of Committees of the Privy Council in his *British Committees, Commissions and Councils of Trade and Plantations*, Johns Hopkins University Studies, Baltimore, 1908.

(10) *Acts of the Privy Council of England; Colonial Series.* Vol 1, Preface, pp. XIII, XIV. This extraordinarily interesting Series has been edited with great diligence and ability by our own Dr. W. L. Grant (now of Upper Canada College) and Dr. James Munro. I wish to tender my humble tribute of sincere thanks to these editors.

(11) De Ramezay who surrendered Quebec, September 18, 1759, was only "Commandant Les Hautes et Basse Ville de Quebec" and could not surrender anything but Quebec and its surrounding territory : but de Vaudreuil who surrendered Montreal, September 8, 1760, was "Gouverneur et Lieutenant General pour Le Roy en Canada"; and he could and did surrender all Canada. See as to the Articles of Capitulation, Shortt and Doughty : *Documents relating to the Constitutional History of Canada*, 1759-1761, 2nd edition, Ottawa, The King's Printer, 1918, pp. 1, *sqq*: 7, *sqq*: my *Michigan Under British Rule*, Michigan Historical Commission, Lansing, 1926, pp. 9, 10, 386, 387 : Kingsford : *History of Canada*, Vol. IV, pp. 417-433.

(12) By the Treaty of Paris, February 10, 1763, by Article 4, the King of France ceded to "His . . . . Britannic Majesty in full right, Canada with all its dependencies," thereby making Canada British *de jure* as well as *de facto*. Shortt and Doughty, *op. cit.*, pp. 99, 115.

(13) While there was undoubtedly power given to General James Murray as Captain General and Governor-in-Chief of the Province of Quebec by his Commission, November 21, 1763, and his Instructions, December 7, 1763, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Council, "to constitute and appoint Courts of Judicature and Justice," it was thought prudent to await the lapse of the eighteen months allowed by Article 4 of the Treaty of Paris for the subjects of France to remove from the ceded territory, if so inclined. Accordingly the Civil Courts were constituted and appointed for the first time only on September 17, 1764, by an Ordinance "*Given by His Excellency the Honourable James Murray, Esq. . . .In Council*, at Quebec, the 17th of September, Anno Domini, 1764 . . ." See Shortt and Doughty: *op. cit.*, pp. 173, *sqq*: 181, *sqq*. 205, *sqq*.

(13) "Snow": "A small sailing-vessel resembling a brig, carrying a main and foremast and a supplementary trysail mast close behind the main mast : formerly employed as a warship." New English Dictionary, *sub-voc*—the latest instance of the word given is in 1860. The term was for years applied to King's vessels on Lake Ontario : many instances of its use will be found in the official despatches of Simcoe and other Governors. A snow was, *e.g.*, lost on the False Ducks.

(14) "Isle of Beck." Bic or L'Islet au Massacre, off the South shore of the St. Lawrence opposite the present Village of Bic, about 180 miles down the river from Quebec and a few miles above Rimouski. The legend is that some two centuries ago over two hundred Micmacs were there slaughtered by the Iroquois. The island is not large.

(15) Nova Scotia Currency, often called Halifax or Provincial Currency, and later Quebec Currency, was at this time considered worth 9/10 of sterling. The name Halifax Currency persisted in Canada until after the middle of the 19th Century, when the Currency disappeared with the name. In my boyhood it was still well-known and commonly used—the pound being $4, the shilling 20 cents. This must be distinguished from the "York Currency," long in vogue in parts of Canada, in which the pound was $2.50 and the shilling (York Shilling or "Yorker") was 12½ cents—eight to the dollar. For the "Yorker" the English sixpence was the coin.

(16) The Statutes of the Commonwealth were not recognized after the Restoration in 1660(at least in theory); and they are not printed in the *Statutes*

of the Realm. They are to be found in Scobell's Blackletter work, *A Collection of Acts . . . . London, 1658 :* this Act is on pp. 176, 177. See also John Reeves : *A History of the Law of Shipping and Navigation,* London, 1792 (an admirable work in every sense), pp. 44, *sqq.*

(17) Reeves, *op. cit.*, p. 72.

(18) Amendments were made from time to time : in 1670, by 22, 23, Car. 2, c. 26 ; in 1672, by Car. 2, c. 7. In 1696 the Act 7, 8, W. & M., c. 32, by sec. 2, allowed the "built" to be of England or Ireland or of the Colonies or Plantations; but in the latter case the ship must be wholly owned by the people thereof.

(19) Reeves, *op. cit.*, pp. 123, 124. A ship, French built, taken as a prize, but not legally condemned, wholly owned by Englishmen, imported fish and oil from Newfoundland. The question arose whether this was a violation of the Act of 1696, forbidding importation from "any Colony or Plantation" in any but a ship of specified 'built'," which this ship was not. The Law Officers of the Crown gave their opinion on the question, January 24, 1698. Sir Thomas Trevor, the Attorney General (1695 to 1702) afterwards a Manager of the Sacheverell Impeachment said in his written Opinion that he should have thought Newfoundland was neither a Colony nor a Plantation had it not been that the Statute law, 15, Car. 2, c. 7 and 27 Car. c. 7, reckoned Newfoundland among His Majesty's Plantations. Of course, all questions ceased with the Treaty of Utrecht ; but up to that time, the sovereignty over Newfoundland was always in dispute. For a discussion of the meaning of "Colony" and "Plantation" see Tomlinson : *Law Lexicon.* Later the status of Honduras was also in dispute after the Treaty of Paris, 1763, by the 17th Article of which Britain undertook to destroy her fortifications there, but British subjects were to be allowed to cut logwood, etc. Sir William de Grey, Attorney General (1766-1771) afterwards C.J.C.B. and Lord Walsingham, was of opinion, November 19, 1768, that it was not a Colony or Plantation of the King, but a part of the Spanish territories. Reeves, *op. cit.*, pp. 126, 127.

(20) *Acts of the Privy Council of England : Colonial Series,* London, The King's Printer, 1912, Vol. IV., pp. 540-3.

(21) The amount of money to be paid for Bills of Exchange varied with the season. I have in my *Life of William Dummer Powell,* Michigan Historical Commission, Lansing, 1924, thus explained the fact : "The exchange fluctuated very much as there was only one convoy to England every year : this being in October, it is obvious that the Canadian debtor received no benefit from any remittance to his English Creditor sent after October of one year until October of the next year : accordingly the Quebec merchants preferred to receive interest from their debtors rather than keep cash or bills locked up ; the natural result was that bills in England dropped sharply in value immediately after the departure of the October convoy and rose gradually till immediately before the sailing to par or about par, and immediately after anywhere from one to ten per cent. below, gradually rising to par".—See *Acts,* etc., Vol. IV, p. 559.

(22) The Ordinance Establishing Civil Courts, September 17, 1764, will be foundi n Shortt and Doughty: *Op. cit.*, pp. 205-210 : *Can. Arch.* Q. 62a, pt. 2, p. 500.

(23) Petition to the King's Most Excellent Majesty of "His Majesty's Ancient and New Subjects, Inhabitants of the Province of Quebec," dated at Quebec, November 24. 1784. Shortt and Doughty: *op. cit.*, pp. 742, 745. The 13th Article reads "That appeals from the Courts of Justice in this Province to Council or Court of Appeals composed of the Right Honourable The Lord Chancellor and the Judges of the Courts of Westminster Hall." The short and sharp reply is, *do.*, *do.*, p. 982 of *Can. Arch.*, C.O. Vol. 21, p. 85.

William Dummer Powell's part in this movement is spoken of in my *Life, ut supra,* pp. 43, *sqq* ; 177, *sqq*; Shortt and Doughty : *op. sit.*, p. 742, Note 1.

(24) For the proceedings in the Privy Council and Committee see *Acts, etc.*, Vol. IV., pp. 719-720 : for subsequent acts see Kingsford : *History of Canada,* Vol. 5, pp. 165, *sqq.* It cannot be said that the proceedings in the Walker affair reflect much credit on the Administration. Perhaps in part because of his "unyielding and surly carriage", Walker was *persona non grata* with Governor and officials ; but there were many of his sympathizers in Montreal, and the authorities did not wish the trials to take place in that Town.

The Ordinance of September 17, 1764, had erected a Court of King's Bench presided over by the Chief Justice, an English lawyer, and having authority to try all civil and criminal cases. This Court sat at Quebec : and "in all Tryals in this Court all His Majestys Subjects in this Colony to be admitted on Juries without Distinction." Of course, the accused might legally be sent to Quebec for trial and there properly enough the Jury was summoned from the whole Colony ; but the more usual course would have been to have the trials before a Court of Oyer and Terminer and General Gaol Delivery in Montreal. A sufficient reason for the non-attendance of Walker and his witnesses was the pecuniary one, for it must be remembered that at that time and for long after, Crown witnesses received no pay ; and it would have been a heavy tax on Walker, even if he could persuade his witnesses to go, and dared himself to go to Quebec.

The Ordinance provided that the Chief Justice should hold a "Court of Assize and General Gaol Delivery" once a year at the Towns of Montreal and Trois Rivieres "for the more easy and convenient Distribution of Justice to His Majesty's Subjects in those distant parts of the Province." Obviously, the usual course was to try Montreal cases at Montreal.

But by the Common Law of England a Jury must be summoned from the body of the County ; and, in old Quebec, the District corresponded to the English County. There was no provision in the Ordinance for the locus of the Jury in the Courts at Mntreal and Three Rivers ; and the usual and proper course was to summon the Jury from the particular District only. It was determined by the authorities to avoid trial by a Montreal jury ; and an Ordinance was passed, March 9, 1765, to effect this object. The Ordinance is not in Shortt and Doughty: *op. cit.:* it will, however, be found in *Ordinances made and passed by the Governor and Council of the Province of Quebec, 1763-91*, Ottawa, The King's Printer, 1917, pt. 1, pp. 67, 68. It recites :

"Whereas at a Council held by His Excellency the Governor of this Province at the City of *Montreal*, on the Third Day of *January* last, it was, amongst other Things, Resolved, That it was not necessary to hold a Court of Assize in the City of *Montreal*, as the Court of King's Bench, to be held in the Capital, would be sufficient to answer every purpose. And whereas several Crimes and Offences have lately been committed in the City of *Montreal*, and the Offenders charged therewith, as well as most of the Witnesses to prove the same, are now residing and dwelling in the City of *Quebec* : and whereas several Persons stand bound by Recognizances to appeal and answer, and others to appear and prosecute, and give Evidence against the several Persons so charged at the next Court of Assize and General Gaol Delivery, to be held at the said City of *Montreal :* In Order therefore to avoid the great and unnecessary expense to this Province, which must unavoidably happen, as well as the great Delay of Justice by bringing Jurors from the District of *Montreal* to *Quebec*, for trying the said Offenders, or by removing the several Persons charged with the said Crimes and the Witnesses to prove the same, from the City of *Quebec* to *Montreal* aforesaid, it has been resolved by His Excellency the Governor in Council, That a Commission for a Court of Assize and of Oyer and Terminer and General Gaol Delivery, do forthwith issue, directed to the Honourable *William Gregory*, Chief-Justice of this Province, for the hearing and determining at the City of *Quebec* aforesaid, all Causes of Nisi Prius, Treasons, Felonies, Crimes and Misdemeanours whatsoever, done or committed in this Province as well out of Districts as within, and the Gaols in the same Province, of the Prisoners therein being to deliver; In Order therefore to avoid any Doubt or Objection that may hereafter arise or be made, touching any proper Venue or Vicinage of Juries hereafter to be summoned and returned." Then it proceeds to Ordain and Declare :

"That all Precepts for the summoning and returning of Grand-Juries; and all Writs of Venire Facias, hereafter to be issued out of any Court of Record in this Province, shall, for the future, in all Cases whatsoever, be for the summoning and returning of Juries from the Body of this Province at large, as well out of Districts as within ; and all Juries, so summoned and returned, and who are otherwise by any Ordinance of His Excellency the Governor and Council of this Province declared to be qualified to serve on Juries are hereby declared to be lawfully summoned and returned, and shall serve accordingly, any Law, Usage or Custom to the Contrary notwithstanding."

This accounts for the constitution of the Jury at Three Rivers.

Of course those who were acquitted at Three Rivers could not be again tried : *Nemo bis vexari debet pro eadem causa.*

By the time the soldier gave information in 1766, Murray had left the Province, being succeeded by Sir Guy Carleton. Chief Justice Gregory and Attorney General Suckling had been succeeded by William Hey and Francis Maseres, very different and very superior characters. The prosecutions were now proceeded with with due vigour : but Walker's luck was against him.

(25) Walker's subsequent career can be read in Kingsford : *History of Canada*, Vol. 5, pp. 167, *sqq.:* 196, Vol. 6, pp. 39, 69. He was dismissed from the Commission of the Peace, but was restored : he opposed the Quebec Act of 1774, actively supported the rebel cause, was arrested but released by Montgomery and finally left Canada after his fruitless attempt to win the Canadians over to the Revolutionary side in 1776. Franklin, who was an excellent judge of men, says of Walker and his wife : "I think they both have an excellent talent for making enemies, and I believe, live where they will, they will never be long without them" : Franklin, *Works, etc.*, Vol. 8, pp. 182-3.

CIVIL AVIATION

BY CAPTAIN J. A. WILSON, R.N., OTTAWA.

24th March, 1927.

The President occupied the chair.

CAPTAIN WILSON gave an address of much practical value, showing post-war activities in aviation in various countries. Britain had established services to the Continent, to India, Central Africa, gradually linking up London with Cape Town, India, Singapore and Australia.

France had laid routes to North and West Africa; and Germany was making efficient air-lines and connections throughout Northern Europe, and Russia was pushing into Asia.

The United States was developing air mail routes, transcontinental and subsidiary; and was utilizing night flying whereby time was being saved.

Everywhere, almost, a substantial advance was to be noted, and it behoved Canada not to lag behind. There were reasons why Canada had not shown greater enterprise; post-war obligations had been heavy, but with better conditions there was bound to be a strong forward movement. Excellent work had been done by the Government of Canada which would stand to the credit of the country and prove an encouragement to commercial efforts. Among other things undertaken from the air in Canada might be mentioned—forestry surveys, fire protection, transportation in undeveloped regions; fishery patrols; wheat rust disease; the mapping out of forest and mining areas; photographic surveys; investigation of ice conditions in Hudson Bay and Straits. But public opinion was needed in this great service, as in all other public services, and the quick realization of an adequate air service for Canadian trade and commerce lay with municipalities, trade organizations, and public bodies and corporations generally who saw the opportunity, and would lead the way. The address was profusely illustrated by film and screen, and was extremely interesting.

The thanks of the meeting was cordially tendered to Captain Wilson.

THE CROWN

AN ADDRESS BY SIR ALAN AYLESWORTH, K.C.M.G.

(*Links of Empire Series*)

31st March, 1927.

SIR ALAN was introduced by the President, and spoke as follows : It is a pleasure to me to be among you to-day and I acknowledge gratefully the signal honour you do me in asking me to be your guest on this occasion. And that honour is a double one, when your President has been good enough to indicate to me that it would be agreeable if I attempted to say something on this occasion in regard to the position which the Crown of England occupies as a link of Empire.

That seems an especially appropriate subject to discuss before a club of gentlemen who use the name of The Empire Club, and it is equally an agreeable one to me personally, because while I am not a member of the Empire Club, I am a member of the United Empire Loyalists' Association of Canada, which is an organization of somewhat similar character, and one at any rate which enjoys with yourselves the distinction of standing for Canada and a United Empire. (Applause.)

In these modern times the word "Empire" seems, according to the views of some people who instruct us, one which ought scarcely to be used. We hear a great deal said, and we see in our newspaper columns a great deal written, about the Commonwealth of British Nations. The good old word "Empire," the good old phrase "The British Empire," seems to be to some extent discarded. Well, gentlemen, it is not a matter of particular consequence, except as one of sentiment. It is not of particular significance whether we term ourselves the Commonwealth of Nations, or whether we claim the distinction of being an actual empire. But so far as legal phraseology is concerned, so far as literal accuracy demands, the term "The British Empire" is far the older and much the better of the two. (Applause.) We do not call our King an emperor save as regards the Empire of India, but in many statutes of the English Parliament, and in many formal documents which fix the relations between the Crown and the subject, the actual wording is Empire, and the declarations of the most formal authorities for centuries have been that England, that Britain and her Dominions, constitute an actual empire.

All but four hundred years ago, before any white man had set foot in Canada, in the 24th year of the reign King Henry VIII, which would be in the year of our Lord 1533, a statute was passed by the Parliament of England, and the preamble to that statute begins, "Whereas by divers sundry old authentic histories and chronicles it is manifestly declared and expressed that this realm of England is an empire, and so hath been accepted in this world, governed by one supreme head and King, having the royal estate and dignity of the imperial crown of the same." (Applause.) So you have the English Parliament centuries ago formally declaring that England was an empire, and its supreme head a king enjoying to the fullest degree the dignity of the imperial crown of the same. And that phraseology has been carried forward in various other statutes of the kingdom. A hundred and fifty years later, when the great constitutional act of 1688, known as the Bill of Rights was being passed,—when twelve years afterwards, the Act of Settlement, fixing the succession to the crown in England, came to be passed to the Parliament of England the same phraseology is used, and the realm of England is called an empire, and its crown declared to be of imperial dignity. A hundred years afterward, when America had to some extent been settled by the English people, and when after the Revolutionary War the confirmation of the independence of the thirteen colonies had taken place, those of the colonial citizens who were not willing to forgo their allegiance to the British Crown took to themselves, or were given, as the name decriptive of their desire for a continued united empire, the appellation of the The

United Empire Loyalists. (Applause.) As such they came to Canada and as such they were the original pioneers of this Province of Ontario, or old Upper Canada. The name of the United Empire lived in their minds and was perpetuated by the title by which they wished to be designated.

In 1867 when our own constitutional act, the British North America Act, was passed by the Imperial Parliament, the recital of the object with which that statute was passed, repeats the like phraseology, and becomes the constitution of Canada to-day. "Whereas such a union of the Provinces would conduce to the welfare of the Provinces, and promote the interests of the British Empire . . . ."—so that from the birth of the present Canadian constitution we have been told that we are a constitutent part of the British Empire, and as such, living under the same unamended constitution to-day, we form in this Dominion of His Majesty, an integral part of an empire and are well entitled to use the word, and to say that we are not only a Commonwealth of British Nations but that we are, to use the older and more venerable term, constitutent members of the British Empire. (Hear, hear, and applause.)

Now we often think of the ties which bind us to our Motherland, of the ties which hold together this Empire of the Briton, and universally, I think, it will be agreed that no stronger tie of union exists than that of our common allegiance and fealty to the Crown of England. (Hear, hear, and applause.) It is not merely the individual who is King. To the individual certainly we each owe our faithful allegiance, and we pledge it when we take the oath of allegiance, but it is to the institution of royalty, to the institution of kingship, to the Crown as such, that we look as the bond which keeps us together, and which is not merely one of sentiment and of affection, but is also of the most practical every-day importance in the ordinary business affairs of life. The Empire, we were told by the ancient statute of Henry VIII, is governed by one supreme head and king. Such was its constitution when Canada was acquired a hundred and sixty odd years ago. It was into that aggregation, that Empire, that Canada came when its territory was ceded by the King of France to the King of Great Britain. And the reason why the King has come to be this binding link of Empire is simply the royal prerogative, rights and privileges which he enjoys in his capacity as head of the State. We speak compendiously of all those rights and privileges by the word "prerogative", but perhaps we fail sometimes to realize how much that means. Those rights and that authority are governed by statutes, charters,—compacts they may be called—between the king and his people. Our constitutional histories point to four great statutes or charters securing the liberties of the English people, and definitely stating what the authority and privileges and powers of the king are to be. The Magna Charta of 1215; the Petition of Rights of 1627; the Bill of Right of 1688; and the Act of Settlement of 1700. Each is but a declaration of the fundamental laws of England; because it is always to be remembered that under English law the king, the head of the state, was never an Oriental despot, was never a sovereign ruler, entitled to make, at his own will and pleasure, such orders or decrees or laws for his people as he alone might see fit. But from the earliest beginnings of English history the king was, in one sense, subject to the laws of the land. The compact between him and his people always was that he should govern according to law. True, in many instances, kings, individual kings, went perhaps beyond their legal rights,—a strong king desiring to increase those rights, to increase those powers—and so, a struggle would arise between the king on the one part to increase his royal powers, and the people on the other part to cut them down, or to establish their own liberties. And out of that struggle, ultimately things came into a settled position, and these four great charters or Acts of Parliament, constitute substantially the written limitations upon the power of the royal ruler, and establish the rights of the subject people. These constitute, in substance, the constitution of Great Britain to-day, and the constitution of Canada.

The title of the crown of England was originally elective, or substantially so. We see it in our histories of the Saxon times. For a thousand years, or nearly, before the Norman Conquest, there were rulers—or kings, they might be called—in different portions of the British Island, and those kings in many instances were selected in some manner by popular choice. The last of the Saxon kings, Harold, conquered by the Normans, enjoyed his throne for the short time that he was king, not as a matter of hereditary right, because his family had never before been at the head of the nation, except that it was the most prominent family in the country. He was selected, or elected, or chosen, to be king; and it was only by gradual steps that the idea of hereditary descent, or of limiting the right to be at the head of the state to the family of William the Conqueror came to be recognized as a part, one may say, of the royal prerogative. But by the Revolution of 1688, by the Bill of Rights which was then passed by the Parliament, and passed by the assent of the king who was then selected, King William of Orange, and by the subsequent Act of Settlement, fixing upon the succession to the throne, the same right of choice or selection on the part of the people was asserted, exercised and thoroughly demonstrated. Let me remind you, gentlemen, that by the Act of Settlement of 1700, which brought into England and placed upon the British throne the present Royal Family, there was a complete disregard of hereditary rights or of the principle of hereditary direct descent, which the law applies to the ownership of land, or to the descent and devolution of property. By this Act of Settlement of 1700, a new source of title for the Royal Family of Britain was evolved, or was chosen. The Princess Sophia, the daughter of the Princess Elizabeth, the daughter of King James I, was deliberately selected as the new source of title. She was, of course, a lineal descendent of William the Conqueror, but in fixing upon the Princess Sophia and her descendants, the British people deliberately passed over, not only their still living King, James II, but also his son James Edward, known to history as the Old Pretender, and equally they passed over Henrietta, the daughter of Charles I, and her descendants, of whom some are living at this day. Equally, in selecting the Princess Sophia as the root and source of a new descent of kingship, the people of England passed over two brothers of Sophia, who according to the rules of primogeniture would have had superior right. Her brothers then living, Charles Louis, and Edward, are both ignored, and the daughter, the Princess Sophia, deliberately selected.

Now that is a comparatively recent instance of the application of the principle of selection, or of choice, in the ruler of the British Empire, and is, as everybody sees, one of the strongest links of Empire, and one of the things which serve to make the present king of England and the present royal family not only dear to the hearts of the people of the country, but a ruler and family pledged to govern according to the laws of the kingdom; accepting the throne not as any matter of hereditary personal right, but as the considered choice of the British people that he should rule over them, and rule over them according to their own laws and customs and usages. (Applause.)

The king pledges himself at his coronation so to rule. Time does not serve upon this occasion to detail to you anything of the ceremonies of coronation; they are most significant and most interesting. I need not speak of their number; I do not remember, but I think there are fifteen or sixteen separate and distinct ceremonies, all of which are solemnly and carefully gone through,—ceremonies of formal and religious nature, but each having its own ancient and peculiar significance. The essential ones are, perhaps, that the king should be presented publicly to his people as their choice. The people are told to look upon their king; the people recognize their king, they accept him as such. Then follows his oath of office, wherein he solemnly promises and pledges himself that he will govern according to law, that he will see, so far as it is in his power, that justice is done to every man, that justice in mercy should be administered in all his judgments. I need not speak of any of the further ceremonies; those are the material and important two. Now that ceremony of presentation to the people is one of special importance. It is something like the form, and it is not any mere form either, which still obtains in our courts of justice. When a juror comes to the book to be sworn, the clerk of the court says, "Prisoner, look upon the juror; juror, look upon the prisoner." The two, the one the prisoner to be tried, the other the juror who upon his oath is to try him truly, are to look each upon the other, to see each other face to face. And just in that way each king of England is presented to his people publicly, that they may for themselves see the man selected to be their ruler, and that he on his part may look into the faces of his people.

One cannot but be impressed when looking over the formalities of the coronation with the absolute identity in that feature of the ceremony with the one which is recorded in the Book of Samuel. When Saul, son of Kish, who towered above his fellows by head and shoulders in height, was chosen to be first king of the Jewish people, the sacred record states how Samuel the Prophet presented him to the Jewish people, and how the people when told to look upon their king replied with a shout, and said, "God save the king." (Applause.) And that ancient prayer, first uttered on the plains of Palestine three thousand years ago by the Jewish people to acclaim their king, is now to-day repeated at the coronation of the British king in the same identical words to the same Eternal God. Not upon the plains of Israel but in the shrine and temple of the British people, in the House of the Lord at Westminster, builded by our fathers in centuries gone by, that same prayer is uttered to the same Almighty Being when the people answer "God save the King." *Domine, salvum fac regem.* Oh God, make safe the king. (Applause.)

The appreciation of the address was shown by three rousing cheers following the round of applause.

The President tendered to the speaker the thanks of the Club.

NAVAL DEFENCE

AN ADDRESS BY ADMIRAL W. OSWALD STORY, C.B.E., GUELPH, ONT.

(Links of Empire Series)

7th April, 1927

Some years ago, a French author wrote : "Naval strategy has indeed for its end to found, support, and increase in peace and war the sea-power of a country". Now let us define what is meant by sea-power.

A primitive race has but few requirements, such as nature can produce. As the race develops, wants and production increase, till at last production exceeds the requirements and outside markets become a necessity. To reach these markets, it stands to reason transportation must be provided, and further that those markets being found in distant lands, the bulk of the goods must be transported by sea. As the value of this trade increases it requires armed protection to insure its reaching its destination in safety. People also require from abroad goods that cannot be produced at home, and raw materials for their own manufacturers that they do not possess, and in certain cases food for their own consumption. So that it becomes imperative to their very existence that the seas be kept open at all times. Again, as a people increases in strength and wealth, its nationals go further afield in search of trade and commerce. These also require protection. Hence, the sea-power of a country may be measured by the volume of its sea-borne commerce, plus the armed protection it is able to afford, its power to keep the seas open in peace and war, and the protection and prestige it can give to its people in foreign parts. Thus, the British Empire was built up by her traders who carried her commerce to distant lands and established themselves in security under the armed protection of the British Navy, or in early days trusting to their own armed vessels, as in the case of the East India companies who fought many gallant actions. So the flag followed the trade.

For some years, I was stationed on the Australian Station, spending many months each year among the South Sea Islands, where among treacherous natives one found everywhere British traders, rough men living alone, but secure in their persons and possessions through the knowledge among the natives that there was always a man-of-war somewhere in the neighbourhood. Japan owes her present position to her sea-power, and through it takes up the position of one of the great powers and one to be respected in the council of nations. Before the War, Germany built up her strength by her sea-power, which she lost by ill-advised military action.

There is another expression : A nation may be said to have command of the sea when in war its vessels can pass thereon in safety at all times, it being understood that this is not vitiated by sporadic raids.

It is to the advantage of a country, that its trade be carried in its own ships, manned by its own people, and protected by its own vessels of war. Some nations naturally take to the sea, others do not, dependent upon circumstances, such as geographical position, environment, tradition and the state of the labour market. Now in England, all these conditions are favourable. A comparatively small island, surrounded by sea, which is at almost everyone's door ; hardly a family but has or had someone following the sea as a profession ; and an overcrowded labour market. Hence the sea Spirit is always to be found and she experiences no difficulty in manning her ships. At the opposite extreme we find the United States, part of a vast continent with a small sea-board relative to its area; no sea-tradition to speak of and no race of seamen, except in the north-east corner; and ample well-paid work for everyone. She has to offer tremendous inducements to get men to man her ships. I heard only the other day of a boy of my acquaintance, aged 16, with no experience, going to sea in one of her tramp steamers as a deck boy, at $70.00

per month, all found, comfortable quarters, plentiful food, such as would be obtained in any good hotel, and eight hours a day work. Canada is much the same in position as the U.S., eliminating, of course, the Northern Sea board, which is practically unpopulated. Her sea-traditions are purely such as come down to her from her connection with the mother country; and families having a member following the sea are few. She has, of course, in the maritime provinces the descendants of one of the finest races of seamen the world has ever known; and I saw last fall in the race between the two famous schooners "Blue Nose" and "Haligonian" that their traditions have not been lost. But these form a small percentage of the population of the Dominion.

The armed forces I have mentioned are known as a "Navy", whose duty it is, therefore, to keep the seas open, so that ships may at all times pass thereon, on their lawful occasions. Observe the word "lawful", which is the key note of this expression. The articles of war by which the Naval Discipline Act is known commences in its preamble "Whereas it is on the Providence of God and a strong Navy, that the peace and prosperity of this realm do most chiefly depend—". These are words unmistakable in their meaning, and have been proved by all past history to be true.

Venice, once Queen of the Adriatic, sent her commerce far and wide, supported by armed vessels, or in such, and grew rich and prosperous. The time came when prosperity became too great and luxury destroyed the virility of her people, Her armed vessels were laid up, her people sank into sloth, her commerce declined, and she is now, commercially speaking, but a monument of the past, a beautiful city for tourists to visit.

Spain, once a mighty colonizing power, with a far-flung empire, connected with the motherland by sea, from one cause and another allowed her sea-force to decline, so that Sully characterized Spain, as one of those states whose legs and arms are strong and powerful, but the head infinitely feeble. Since his day the Spanish navy suffered annihilation, the consequences briefly being that her shipping was destroyed, manufactures perished with it, the narrow stream of gold and silver that flowed from her colonies was interrupted by enemy vessels, so she lost her wealth and eventually her foreign possessions. Portugal, in the same way and for similar reasons declined.

Holland, once rich and powerful, carried in her ships the greater part of the trade of the world, lost this carrying trade when she lost their protection, largely because it was found safer for merchants to send their goods in British ships. This loss was largely due to parsimony. One of their own statesmen wrote: "Never in time of peace, and from fear of rupture, will they take resolution strong enough to lead them to pecuniary sacrifices before hand. The character of the Dutch is such that unless danger stares them in the face, they are indisposed to lay out money for their own defence. I have to do with a people liberal to profusion where they ought to economize, who are often sparing to avarice where they ought to spend". Are not these words worth pondering over and taking to heart ? An English writer also wrote about the Dutch; that they were so parsimonious in fitting out their ships of war, that they could not keep the seas, with the result: "that we took five of their ships for two of ours that fell into their hands."

Now to see what advantages sea-power and command of the sea has been to a country, we will go back to history to the long struggle between Rome and Carthage. We find Rome holding command of the sea from the north of Spain to Marseilles, and from thence to the north if Sicily, round the south of Italy and across the Adriatic. Carthage, Spain and Macedonia wanted to attack the power of Rome at its heart, but Macedonia was unable to cross the Adriatic; Carthage could not reach the south of Italy with an army, but formed a base in Spain, whence the great Hannibal started on his march round to Italy over land, incidentally losing

33,000 men out of his 60,000; when he reached the vicinity of Rome his force was too weak for an offensive, so he passed on to the south where he lived on the inhabitants. Return was impossible because Rome having command of the sea had landed an army in the south of France which cut off his retreat. Carthage could not send him supplies for years, but eventually managed to send a few re-inforcements including elephants. (It would be interesting to a seaman to learn how they accomplished this feat in their small vessels). This shows the advantages of a country holding the command of a sea, preventing an expeditionary force from reaching its shores by sea.

The 17th and 18th centuries are marked by the number of wars which followed one another, in which the nations of Europe were all involved sometimes as allies, and sometimes as enemies, and in most cases the underlying motive was trade and its expansion. Nearly all wars may be said to be caused by the scramble for trade and possessions; two exceptions may be quoted such as the "War of Jenkins' Ear" which was caused by some Spanish sportsman cutting off the ear of a British mariner, and (I think the last Dutch war where the Dutch resented England's claim to the sovereignty of the seas north of Cape Finisterre.

Early in the century the Dutch, having been successful against Spain allowed their fleet to deteriorate. Cromwell strengthened the British fleet, and his General at sea, Monk, brought it to a high state of efficiency, so much so that the Dutch were blockaded in their ports and their merchantmen ceased to function, with the result, it was said that "grass grew in the streets of Amsterdam." By 1665 Monk was dead and the Dutch had recovered and rebuilt their fleet and further fighting occurred. In 1666 both sides, tired of the struggle, retired from the contest, and Charles the Second, with his lack of money laid up the fleet. His intelligence department, if he had one, must have been at fault, for on the 14th of June, 1667, the Dutch sailed up the Thames, and destroyed the shipping, burning off

Chatham, one of our finest men-of-war, the "Royal London." They remained a couple of days off the mouth of the Thames, and returned home, unmolested. This shows the danger of unpreparedness against a potential enemy. In 1668, Great Britain withdrew from the war, and the French took on another quarrel, with the result that more of the Dutch trade passed into British hands. With this, and the circumstances I have mentioned before, the Dutch were left in such a pitiful plight that for a time as a historian puts it, "the Zuyder Zee became a forest of masts, and famine stalked naked throughout the land". The following years brought on our long-drawn-out struggle with France, where France in particular waged what is called a "guerre de course", or a war against commerce. Great Britain was able to control this to a great extent, and give protection, which enabled her wealth to increase, and support her to the final conclusion. By her sea-power, among other things, she was able to control the French pretensions in India, but the episode that stands out most, and is of the greatest interest to us here in Canada, is Hawke's action in Quiberon Bay which has been described as an early Trafalgar. In November, 1759, the French under Conflans started out with the intention of leading an expedition for the invasion of England or Scotland, when he was met by Hawke in a gale of wind. Finding himself on a lee-shore, with the wind increasing, he ran for Quiberon Bay. thinking that Hawke would not dare to follow him in, but in this he was mistaken in the temerity of this gallant seaman, who held on through the shoals of an uncharted harbour, in the gathering storm, and eventually brought his fleet to anchor under the lee of some islands, while the French fleet was completely destroyed by running ashore. This is but a brief account of a wonderful episode in Naval History; and it is interesting to note that on this very night Hawke's effigy was being burned in the streets of London, the people believing he was shirking his duty. This action cleared the seas, enabled the base of Louisburg to be formed, which completed the conquest of Canada, and two years after this date, the French surrendered their claims, and Canada was painted red on the map of the world. I think our Canadian histories, especially those used as text-books in schools do not pay sufficient attention to the debt that Canada owes to the British Navy, which enabled those gallant soldiers and early settlers to win Canada for the British Empire, by keeping the seas open.

During the late War, owing to the position of Germany we early obtained command of the sea, which enabled our Expeditionary Force to cross with safety, and without any loss. Very different to Hannibal, who unable to cross the sea, had to march round, an alternative denied to us. Had the allies not had command of the sea, the war would have had a very different termination, and we might by now have been using German as the official language of the country. Instead, trade and commerce, were able to proceed as usual on most seas, and under protection on others. There was however, one cruiser, loose in the Indian Ocean, which destroyed a considerable amount of shipping before she was run down, and was destroyed by an Australian vessel. What a thrill would have gone through Canada, had this vessel been a Canadian one. To show the difficulty of rounding up cruiser or commerce-destroyer, nine or eleven vessels were hunting her at the time she was discovered. Von Spee's squadron did very little damage in this way, before being finally disposed of, but made Canada feel unconfortable on her west coast. Only the Moeve, and I believe, one other vessel managed to get through our blockade, and after doing some damage to commerce and trade, succeeded in returning to their base unmolested.

It is to be borne in mind that the comparative ease with which we kept the trades routes open was in large measure due to the geographical position of the enemy. Had his coasts been open to the sea, it would have been quite a different matter, for it would have been almost impossible to prevent a number of commerce-destroying vessels from slipping out, and we have seen how difficult it is, under modern conditions to catch even one. Let this never be lost sight of in any considerations, bearing on trade protection.

The duty of a navy being, as I have said, to keep the seas open, you may ask, how is this to be done? The answer is; it has three functions to perform. The first is to seek out its main fleet—the enemy's fleet, defeat it, or contain it. With the remaining cruisers available, to protect the trades routes. Thirdly, protect its own ports of ingress and egress. If you look at a chart showing the trades routes, you will notice that there are certain local points, through which, or near which, all vessels must pass. It is in the vicinity of these that our cruisers must be stationed, and bases established as near as circumstances will admit, from which they can radiate. Hence, the much-talked of need of a base at Singapore. For protection of ports of ingress and egress, destroyers, submarines, minesweepers are required. These are the general lines on which naval strategy is based.

A modern naval vessel of war is a very complicated machine, which takes from one to three years to build. Its personnel is comprised of very carefully-trained officers and men, whose training requires about seven years. Hence, neither the ship nor the crew can be hastily improvised, when war looms on the horizon, and those who are interested in trade and commerce should see to it that the necessary protection is always at hand, or is in such a state with trained men in reserve that its defensive force can be readily expanded. Here in Canada, we are the builders and if we build well, Canada with her size and vast resources and potential wealth may, in time, become the centre of the Empire, but we must have courage and vision, building for the future and thinking imperially. We have a growing country and an ever-expanding trade, seeking markets further and further afield. At the present moment, we have daily throughout the year an average of three million dollars worth of produce on the sea. Imagine the volume this will reach in, say, seven years time, the time it takes to train the crew of a vessel. We need to encourage a sea-spirit, or sea-consciousness throughout the Dominion, so that this ever-increasing volume of commerce may be carried in Canadian ships, built in Canadian yards, manned by Canadian seamen. It is in the power of Governments to foster this spirit, and to encourage exportable industries, thereby increasing its sea-power, provided it has adequate protection. See how remarkably this was done in the case of Germany whose sea-power before the war, and consequent prestige was second only to that of England. The Navy League of Canada, consisting of public-spirited men and women, is doing its utmost to spread this spirit of sea-consciousness among the people of Canada by supporting Sea Cadet Corps in all the principal cities of the Dominion, so that at the present moment there are about 1,300 boys in training in naval discipline, and interested in sea-life. We have our Canadian National Mercantile Marine, the C.P.R. and other vessels, and one sees in the papers many of them bound to destinations throughout the seven seas, all bearing Canadian produce, bringing wealth and prosperity to the Dominion. It is for you, business men, to see that this source of wealth, the very life-blood of the country shall run no risk of interruption by enemy action, that it is adequately protected. Remember the fate of Spain.

Canada of herself, and from her own resources cannot provide all the protection necessary for her commerce, nor is there any need for her to do so. She is one of the great nations forming the British Empire. We are all one family, and are, or ought to be each other's best customers. So by combining, and forming one Empire Navy, we shall insure that the sea shall be kept open to our commerce, at all times, and under all conditions. I would suggest that it is not outside the means of Canada to provide a force sufficient to protect her ports of ingress and egress, and her share of the additional cruisers required to increase the adequate navy for policing the trade routes of the Empire. Then indeed we may say that it is on the Providence of God, and a strong United

Navy, that the peace and safety of this Empire do most chiefly depend.

There are two more naval problems of interest to Canada. As this nation grows and commerce extends, more and more of her nationals will be found in foreign, parts, who would benefit by the safety and prestige which can only be obtained by the periodical sight of the armed forces of the nation. We are witnessing in China now, English and U.S. destroyers rescuing foreigners, among whom there must be a sprinkling of Canadians. The second problem is this. In case of war between other powers, in which Canada is a neutral, she has on the West Coast, many out-of-the-way harbours, islands, etc., in which a belligerent under certain circumstances might establish bases, or make use of. Some force is necessary to assure that Canada's neutrality shall be respected, lest she be constrained to accept the humiliation of seeing herself scorned and flouted, as has occurred to weak nations many times in history.

When trade, the very source of a nation's life is at stake the real situation to be faced can best be put in the words of Scripture: "When a strong man armed keepeth his palace, his goods are in peace: But when a stronger than he come upon him, and overcome him, he taketh from him all his armour wherein he trusted, and divideth his spoils."

The thanks of the meeting were accorded heartily to Admiral Story.

SOUTH AMERICAN IMPRESSIONS

AN ADDRESS BY COLONEL THE HONOURABLE HENRY COCKSHUTT, LL.D.

14th April, 1927.

THE PRESIDENT occupied the chair and introduced the speaker of the day, who was cordially received. He said that it was not his intention to deliver a set speech, but merely to give in an informal way some impressions of a visit made, with members of his family, early in the year, to South America.

No one could visit the Argentine Republic or Brazil without being impressed by the natural resources of those vast countries, vast in extent and rich in natural endowments; and by the apparent fact that these resources were the objects of forthcoming enterprise. It was noticeable that Canadians were on the spot; at the main centres they occupied important positions with credit to themselves and to Canada.

He would refer first to Buenos Aires. It was only natural that people should take a special pride in their own home city. They all did it; and were to be commended for it,—civic patriotism was a fine trait of citizenship. Therefore when one heard the people of Buenos Aires assert that their's was the most beautiful city in the world once could sympathize with their love for their city; and, indeed, when the visitor looked around and viewed its amenities he would feel inclined to allow more than one-half of the claim. Buenos Aires was indeed a most beautiful place, unequalled, probably, in some respects, on this side of the ocean. The population was, he believed, mounting up to nearly two millions and that large and flourishing community was supplied with the comforts and conveniences which modern conditions of life required. There were attractive parks and public squares. The cathedral, the palace, Government House, and the chief public buildings were architecturally impressive and were in themselves an evidence that the people desired to keep abreast of the times, and that they believed in building an attractive as well as a commodious city.

The export trade of Argentina centred on Buenos Aires, and consequently the harbour facilities on the magnificent water-front were on an extensive plan. The Republic possessed a large territory, well watered by rivers and lakes, and the land was noted for its rich pasturage. The main interest was the raising of sheep and cattle; and it was, he believed, a fact, that some of the finest beef imported by Britain was sent from this fine grazing country. There was also the production of tobacco, fruits, cereals and dairy goods. Of wheat, as many as thirty-six shiploads per day left the harbour when the season was at its height. The cattle trade had fallen off somewhat lately owing to the export tax placed on it by the Argentine Government, and indeed all movement of goods was hampered through lack of adequate transportation facilities. There were no sufficient highways, and the railways were of three different gauges—narrow, standard and broad—which did not allow interchange of traffic, on long or short hauls. In the matter of the transportation of wheat alone, it was estimated that this condition of things, and the various handlings which it involved, caused a wastage of from forty to fifty per cent. between the grain in the ear and the loaf of bread on the table. The disadvantage to which the grower and operator were put from this state of things was very great; and it ought also to be added that South American grain was of the soft variety and brought a lower price than the better Canadian quality. Yet the Argentine crops were a factor in the market of the world.

In the course of a journey of some six hundred miles into the interior, they had travelled through a country the very appearance of which filled one with hope for its future greatness. From Buenos Aires to Cordova, a distance of some six hundred miles, the country was one vast cultivated plain,—fields, miles in length, along the railway, being sown with corn, wheat, and alfalfa, the latter furnishing succulent food for great herds of cattle. There was an air of prosperity everywhere and the promise of unbounded development. It was a fact, that there were natural resources in abundance untouched. Population and production were bound in the very nature of things to grow and expand more and more in the near future; for natural wealth, in our day, did not long go a-begging. Canadian business men, especially exporters who wished to build up a South American trade, ought to visit the country as the best means of getting a true idea of conditions. Personal observation, personal contact, were necessary in order to understand what the opportunities were which existed in places away from home. An open mind, a seeing eye, and clear judgment, with some of the old spirit of adventure, lay at the basis of world business, and world opportunities were never better than they were to-day.

Even to a greater extent than in the Argentine was the truth of this to be learned in Brazil. An example of what Canadian business courage could accomplish abroad was found in the experience of the Brazilian Power Company. This company was a Canadian organization which developed on a large scale in the South where it was meeting with success. Manned and operated by Canadians, it was furnishing power, tram, gas and light service to Rio de Janeiro, the chief city of Brazil. The city—thirty miles distant from the point at which the power was generated—had, as a the power services supplied to it, increased in population, in a few years, from 65,000 to 876,000, and last year there had been a new dwelling-house finished for every day in the year. Nearly all the expansion was industrial, and was almost entirely due to the hydro development by this one Canadian corporation.

He had had an opportunity of observing some Brazilian developments of magnitude which interested him very much. The company was constructing a great artificial lake and reservoir, which when complete would cost $40,000,000, and would yield 70,000,000 horse-power, almost as much as was derived from the Canadian side of Niagara. There was really more undertaken in this connection than the generating and distributing of power. The company had obtained large charter rights, including navigation rights in the utilization of which, goods such as coffee, and other produce would be brought by the new route, expeditiously to the seaboard. The present market for the electric power produced by the company was not large enough to absorb the supply. In this matter the foresight of the concern was demonstrated. Instead of being content with merely meeting the demand of the existing market, the company made provision in its original plans, for a larger supply, so that they might be prepared for the further demands they hoped for, and thus save the additional cost of reconstruction. But not contented to wait for something to turn up the company set about to create a demand among firms hitherto using other forms of power, and was succeeding in doing so. That was in the ordinary course of expanding business, what any company with surplus stock would do. But in addition to the obvious, this company struck out in other directions. It had found out that in the past a large portion of the surrounding country had been coffee plantations worked by slaves. With economic changes the land had been allowed to deteriorate and become unproductive. To bring back vast tracts of land to a fertile condition, plans were being made to use the surplus electric power to extract fertilizers from the distant rock formations,—large quantities of which were available—and by this means to fertilize and reclaim the worn-out land so that the cultivation of coffee and other products could be resumed on a vastly profitable scale. Thus, the power would be used, the waste places restored, and a valuable source of wealth added to the country's possessions; and all this through the business genius of their fellow-Canadians, who abroad as well as at home, saw the opportunity and knew when and how to seize it. (Cheers.)

Rio de Janerio, the capital of Brazil, was highly favoured as to its situation; and to its natural advantages , man has added much that is pleasing to the eye. Most of the large city is modern; and it can boast of fine, broad avenues and excellent buildings. There are interesting botanical and zoological gardens; and an aerial railway carries passengers to the top of Sugar Loaf hill (1,260 feet), one of the places of interest much visited. The industrial interests—which are rapidly growing—require flour mills, founderies, breweries, sugar refineries, rubber factories, and railway workshops. There is a commodious harbour which is continually undergoing improvements and from which are exported coffee, rubber, sugar, hides, ores, and diamonds, with a steadily upward tendency.

He desired to acknowledge here the courtesies he had experienced everywhere in the two great Southern republics from resident Canadians. He would specially refer to railway officials and members of the banking profession. Everything possible had been done by these men to help his movements from place to place, to see within the shortest possible time what was most worthwhile seeing, and to get into direct contact with reliable sources of useful information. Both in Argentine and in Brazil the Canadian managers of the branches of the Royal Bank of Canada and of the Canadian Bank of Commerce were most courteous and spared no trouble to render their visit a delightful episode as well as affording an opportunity of seeing at first hand great industrial developments in process of operation. He was welcomed as a Canadian. There was much implied in that. Canadians were welcomed because they had as a rule upheld the standard of fair-dealing and of honour in business to which they were accustomed at home. (Cheers.) He also heard nothing but good-will expressed towards Great Britain. A good name meant much abroad, and while they were proud of that name as Canadians and as citizens of the British Empire, they ought not to forget that it was theirs as a great heritage involving responsibilities to which they should ever be responsive and sensitive.

Before sitting down, there was one thing which he wished specially to refer to. It was the political status of the Canadian Trade Commissioners in South America. Doubtless similar conditions existed elsewhere. While those commissioners with whom he had come in contact were fine gentlemen and energetic workers they were seriously handicapped in the discharge of their duties by the fact that they were denied official recognition by foreign governments because they were not officially attached to a Legation. The Trade Commissioners of the United States, Great Britain, Germany, and other such countries, were attached to the Legations of their respective countries, by which fact they were officially recognized and therefore could make business engagements for visitors and could bring direct action to bear without loss of time or prestige. A Canadian Trade Commissioner could not make an appointment for a visiting Canadian with any Government official because he was not officially recognized. That was not satisfactory and did not look well for this great Dominion. He believed this impairment of the service might easily be remedied by an appeal to Britain to attach the Canadian Trade Commissioners to the British Embassies or Legations as the case might be. (Cheers.)

THE HONOURABLE G. HOWARD FERGUSON, Prime Minister of Ontario, in proposing a vote of thanks, stated that one of the outstanding features of Colonel Cockshutt's career was his strong British sentiment. There had been no word that he had said during his public life, and no act that he had done, which had not been buttressed and strengthened by strong British feeling; a sentiment which was not unwelcome in this country. (Applause.)

Sir William Mulock, seconding the vote of thanks, stated that he shared the sentiments expressed by the Prime Minister in regard to the esteem and admiration in which Colonel Cockshutt was held by the people of Ontario. He welcomed Colonel Cockshutt home. "No public man," continued Sir William, "in my opinion, ever adorned the office of Lieutenant-Governor or served the people in a finer way than has Colonel Cockshutt." (Applause.)

The vote of thanks was conveyed by the President, and acknowledged by Colonel Cockshutt in a few appreciative words.

OUR SPIRITUAL AND MORAL INHERITANCE

AN ADDRESS BY THE REV. RICHARD ROBERTS, D.D.
TORONTO.

(*Links of Empire Series*)

27th April, 1927.

Introduced by the President, DR. ROBERTS received a warm welcome. He said :

Public discourse about the British Empire tends to concern itself chiefly with its external and more obvious aspects,—its size, its commerce, and the like; and far too little attention is paid to its inner significance as a political fact. I want to suggest very briefly and summarily to you certain of the elements of the tradition which we have inherited and which constitute the spiritual and moral grounds upon which the British Commonwealth of Nations has come to rest.

First of all, let me say that it is one of the conditions of a sound realistic judgment upon the moral inwardness of the imperial tradition that we put away from us the cant and humbug of supposing or of pretending that our imperial history is immaculate. Like human nature, and like every other human story, it is a mingling of good and evil; and it is both foolish and dangerous to ignore the facts. Nothing has done more toward the understanding of the empire than did Sir James Seeley's book, "The Expansion of England." But that book is not altogether pleasant reading for patriotic Pharisees. Seeley, like every honest historian, is frank; and he will tell you, for instance, that "a policy now begins which is not , to be sure, very scrupulous, but is able, resolute and successful"; and again, that "moral rectitude is hardly a characteristic feature" of the Cromwellian colonial policy. Now, it is only as we see with Seeley that there are passages in the development of Greater Britain that a candid moral scrutiny would condemn that we are in a position to assess rightly the moral elements which explain the present stability of the British Commonwealth. Let me take a case in point. Our complicity in the slave trade was so deep and deliberate that Lecky described it as at one point "a central object of the British policy". We went into that vile business in the reign of Elizabeth, and it was John Hawkins who took us in. During the seventeenth century, our share in it grew gradually so that we outdid other nations in the extent and ruthlessness of our conduct of it. But this serves to introduce a paradox which seems to run through our whole imperial history. If England became foremost in the traffic in slaves, she was the foremost in reparation also. This is not to say that the moral enormity of slave traffic was wiped out; but it was England that at last, when the horror of this traffic was seen, led the way in slave emancipation. Other instances of the same kind might be given,—up to this present time. In China our record has been no better and no worse than other European nations—and the record of none of them has been very good; and our own record in regard to the opium traffic in China has been justly condemned. None the less, it was a British Foreign Minister who in these latter days first waived special concessions and privileges which China had once been compelled to grant to the Western powers, and which now the Chinese have come to feel obstructive to the realization of their full national identity. We are being blamed to-day for more than our share in the present distresses of China. We do not disown our share, but at the same time, we need not worry overmuch about that. When once the storm and stress of the present is over, China has enough sense to know who her friends are.

While therefore we have no justification for thanking God we are not as other nations are, we may with some thankfulness affirm that we do show signs of better things. And the two circumstances I have spoken of serve to suggest the thread of gold which constitutes the most precious element in our tradition. In the Emancipation of Slaves, we were declaring our faith in the sanctity of human personality; and in Sir Austin Chamberlain's gesture to China, we were affirming our faith in the rights of nationality. And if the time permitted, it would be easy to multiply very impressive evidence that showed that there have been cardinal elements in our public policy. To be sure, there have been waves of reaction when we fall below our own standard; but, by and large, it may be said that if we have a coherent public philosophy at all, it gathers around these two principles : and these two principles may be summed up in one,—namely, a profound faith in freedom—whether of the individual or of the group.

Now, we might spend many days in discussing the nature of freedom : but you will permit me a word or two here on the subject to clear the ground. Freedom is supposed to consist in the absence of restrictions; but it does not. Freedom is the power to choose under what restrictions we are going to live. Freedom, said Edmund Burke, is what a people thinks it is,—that is to say, it is the condition under which a person or a people thinks it can live its own distinctive life and achieve its own distinctive destiny,—implying, naturally, the absence of interference and coercion from without. Now, I need hardly point out to you that this is the first principle of the present unity of the British Commonwealth. Let me give you a recent instance of what I mean. The grant of self-government to the Dutch communities in South Africa after the Boer War grew out of the conviction that they should be free to determine their own life and to work out their own destiny. Since those days, the Union of South Africa has come into being; and certain recent happenings have raised the question as to the future relations of the Union to the Empire. A little time ago, Lord Balfour went up to explain to the students of Edinburgh the position reached at the recent Imperial Conference. At the close of the address, among the questions asked was whether the Union of

South Africa might not take advantage of the situation and exploit it, with presumably a view to complete independence. This was Lord Balfour's reply : "The question is not whether South Africa will be able to, but whether she will want to. There is no power of coercion or discipline; and there has not been for years, as between Great Britain and the Dominions. If they choose to exploit (by which I suppose you mean misuse) the situation which now exists and has long existed, and to which formal sanction has been given by all the prime ministers, it is certainly not for me to say how the situation should be dealt with. I can only give a negative answer. It would not be dealt with by coercion." Which, but positively, means that the first article of imperial asociation is that every member in it shall be free to choose its own way, to live its own life and to work out its own destiny, without interference or compulsion from without. It would take me too far afield to trace the origin and growth of this conviction; but there it is. And in the matter of imperial politics, it is a wholly new thing in the world.

But it has a very important and significant corollary. When the sanctions of physical force are abandoned, you must find sanctions of a different kind; and what we have done in imperial relations is to substitute the politics of good will for the politics of force. And the British Empire is to-day the greatest demonstration of the practicability of the politics of good will. It is worth some attention that, in recent years, the imperial unity has been threatened precisely at those points at which the politics of force and coercion have still prevailed, namely, in Ireland, in Egypt, and in India, and the danger has been averted in every case, and most notably in Ireland, by the degree in which the politics of force have been abandoned in favour of the politics of good will. And if the politics of good will work so manifestly in the Empire, why can they not be made to work in the whole world ? Edmund Burke in a famous speech pleaded that England should in its dealings with India embark on a policy of "hazardous benevolence", a phrase which we may render in a simpler and more modern idiom as a *sporting good-will.* And that is the policy which holds the Empire together; and God knows it is what this whole distracted world needs. There is no reason in the wide earth why if we are true to our traditions in this matter, the Empire may not become the instrument of a unified and warless world. This sporting good-will which works so admirably within the Empire, it is for us to show as a sound working principle in all international relationships; and it may be the predestinate object of the British Empire in the providence of God to make its own domestic discovery of the secret of living together the common possession of all peoples.

I am, to be sure, only touching the skirts of a great subject; but I must pass on to another aspect of the tradition. Lord Acton once said that the test of freedom was the ability of national groups of different racial origin to live together within the same political unity. There is truth in the saying; but the whole truth is that you will never get perfect freedom or complete good-will unless you get them together. The one cannot be without the other. But this has its analogy in respect of the individual. There can be no perfect individual freedom except on the basis of a generous mutual toleration. And on this side of the account we may perhaps say that the conspicuous element in our tradition is the achievement of toleration. And it is a very remarkable story.

I expect that most of you read in the papers the other day the last phase of the Fascist policy in Italy. I see that it is being welcomed in some quarters as a good thing, because it brings labour to heel; but it should be observed that it brings Capital to heel no less vigorously. In Mussolini's philosophy what is sauce for the goose is also sauce for the gander. Here Fascism and Bolshevism are on common ground. They both apparently affirm the omnipotence of the State : and that is a doctrine wholly alien to our tradition. The Absolute State is the denial of personal freedom; and we have never accepted it. A large part of our story from its earliest times consists in the record of a struggle for the freedom of individuals and of small groups. It has been a point of honour among us to respect the rights of minorities; and it is in our very bones and blood that we do not readily submit to regimentation. With us, the freedom of the individual has been the law and the prophets, and we have always believed that there are limits to State interference. We have never exalted the State so as to make its authority absolute; we have always required that the State shall give the individual elbow-room to live his own life.

And herein lies the critical difference between our own inheritance and that of our great neighbour to the south of us. In the United States, the stress has been laid upon human equality; and because the Declaration of Independence says that all men are born free and equal, it has been too lightly assumed that freedom and equality are the same thing. But as a matter of fact, they are not; and our very contiguity to the United States requires that we should be continually on our guard just here. For what has come to pass in the United States is that it has been argued that, if men are born equal, then all men must toe the same line; and there is abroad a public opinion that seems to require a measure of human uniformity which is not wholesome and is on the whole unfriendly to the true sort of social progress. Consequently there is at large little understanding of the meaning and value of toleration, little patience with minorities, little encouragement of independent opinion. We, on the other hand, have been less concerned with equality than we have with liberty; and we have to a considerable extent realized the importance and value of toleration. And that is why Karl Marx could say half a century ago that there would never be a revolution in England: and unless we change our fundamental philosophy, it is safe to say that there never will be. For the one antidote to revolution is toleration: and the one sure way to provoke revolution is to repress dissenting minorities. The fate of the

Tsarist *régime* in Russia is only the latest, and not, I fear, the last, demonstration of the infallibility of repression as a cause of revolution.

Time fails me to follow out the ramifications of the British achievement of freedom for the individual and the group. There is our political freedom—the right of the citizen to a voice in determining the conditions of life and its great sequel in the development of free parliaments. There is our civil freedom in all its aspects,—the freedom of conscience, of opinion and of speech. There has been a long history of the curtailment of class-privileges, of the removal of racial and sectarian disabilities. And all in all, it may be said of us that we are the freest people on earth to-day. We do pay a price for our freedom, to be sure; we have to submit to a certain amount of social untidiness and disorder, some trivial anarchies here and there. But the other side of this is that we are free to grow, to change, to adapt ourselves to altering circumstances and to build our house of life according to knowledge.

And I would especially stress our duty to cherish our freedom of thought and of its expression; first of all, because it is the one certain guarantee of a pacific and wholesome social evolution. Here in Canada we are still young and plastic and unformed; we are in the process of an experiment to create a human society, and we have the opportunity of building up as noble and as vigorous a human society as the earth has ever seen. It would be calamity of the first order if we allowed ourselves to harden into social and political orthodoxies which would fix our character in perpetuity. The world has been, throughout its known history, experimenting in the creation of human societies; and it has never yet been satisfied with its creations; and we are now in the making. It is important that we should remember that in a world of growing knowledge and developing experience, thought should be kept fluid and unpolarised; and that therefore all political and economic doctrines are to be regarded as provisional and relative only. It is our wisdom to encourgage independent thinking in the open—and it is especially our wisdom to let apparently dangerous ideas see daylight, that they may run the gauntlet of scrutiny and criticism, and deliver up, freed from error, what elements of truth may be in them. It is mere folly to suppress them; for that is only to drive them underground, where they fester in darkness until they soon or late explode expensively in the light. It is historically true that dissenting opinion has almost always been the growing point of society. We owe our most cherished liberties to the rebels and heretics of yesterday; and since we are living in a world of which change is the very law, and in which no society or institution is exempt from change, we would do well to establish in our minds the truth that the way to a sound, wholesome, pacific social progress, is the way of toleration. The society which is intolerant of dissenting opinion is inviting decay; the society which has become incapable of dissenting opinion is already dead. In this, I repeat, we have a tradition which we should at all costs, guard.

I have indeed barely passed the threshold of a very important matter; but I venture to suggest that it is a matter which greatly needs to be restated and reinterpreted to us of this generation by a competent historian. For we are, I think in danger of forgetting and therefore of losing some of the strength of the rock from which we were hewn. For me, the British Empire is an object of pride and hope and love, not because it is great in extent, or rich in resources, but because it is the repository and the trustee of a great tradition of ordered and creative freedom.

The cordial thanks of the Club was tendered to Dr. Roberts at the close of his thoughtful and stimulating address.

EDUCATIONAL IDEALS

AN ADDRESS BY THE RIGHT HONOURABLE
STANLEY BALDWIN, P.C., M.P., ETC.,
PRIME MINISTER OF GREAT BRITAIN.

(*Links of Empire Series*)

6 August, 1927

MR. BALDWIN was the guest of honour at a joint meeting of the Canadian and Empire Clubs of Toronto, and the chair was occupied by MAJOR J. E. NORSEWORTHY, President of the Canadian Club, who introduced the Speaker in the following words:—

We are signally honoured to-day by the presence of the Prime Minister of Great Britain. We speak of Britain as our Mother Country not merely because the parents of many of us were born there, but because our form of Government is modelled after that of Great Britain, and we are accustomed to look to her for leadership in social and political development, as well as in religion, education, art and journalism. In industry and commerce, we are inevitably brought into close and constant touch with the United States and it is worthy of note that in these other vitally important matters, in spite of geography, we still receive our main inspiration from the old land. That being the case it is a most happy event that the leader in English public life should have made time to pay Canada a visit, and we are delighted as well as highly honoured to welcome him here to-day. We have all admired Mr. Baldwin, from afar, as the type of statesman who has made the name of the British Government respected and trusted all over the world. In a recent address to a London guild, Mr. Baldwin is reported to have said—"In these days you stand for one of the greatest things in the world—honest craftsmanship." And a Journalist commenting on the address wrote—"Perhaps the whole character of Mr. Baldwin is revealed in his appeal for 'honest craftsmanship'." The list of Mr. Baldwin's engagements indicates that his seventeen days in Canada will be no holiday tour. I don't suppose even a Prime Minister can make speeches without effort, or travel rapidly in hot weather without discomfort. We appreciate what Mr. Baldwin is doing for us in making this trip and assure him that it will do much to help us overcome the disadvantage of being three thousand miles from the centre of the Empire.

I have the greatest pleasure in introducing to you the Right Honourable Stanley Baldwin.

MR. BALDWIN who was warmly received, spoke as follows :—Gentlemen, I shall always remember this occasion as the first one in Canada at which I have not been told that I am here for a vacation. I am here, as I have said in other places, merely as an interpreter of England to you and, I trust, later of you to England; and I would like, before I get on the subject on which I propose to address you for a short time this afternoon, to tell you what I hope may interest a Toronto audience, that I always take a holiday on one Saturday in the year and go down to Henley, and there I meet all the men of the British rowing world, many of whom are old friends of my own; and everyone I saw that Saturday was full of praise of your Joe Wright (Applause) as one of the best scullers and cleanest sportsmen that ever came across. And I don't think I am betraying any confidence when I tell you what one or two of these old oarsmen told me. They said they did not believe it possible that whichever of the two men, Joe Wright or David Collett, had won that heat on the Thursday could have survived in the final because they said it was the most wonderful race ever seen at Henley or anywhere else, and that the winner could not, whoever he was, have had enough physical strength left in him to win the race on the Saturday. I do not know whether Joe Wright would have agreed with that. We all felt his sculling was a thing worth coming a long way to see.

Now, I have made two or three speeches at gatherings like this, and spoken on two or three different aspects of life in England, partly in the hope that it might interest my audiences and partly in the hope that something I might say might be of use to you in dealing with your manifold problems, which are in some ways like and in many ways different from our own; and when I come into Ontario I feel I should like to make my main theme—and I hope you won't think it a very dull one—the subject of education. Because Ontario has always taken the lead in education, we are enormously interested to see how she is grappling with her problems. She is famous for her schools, and in Toronto famous for her university and her colleges.

I don't know whether I am right in thinking that it may be largely due to the fact that among the early settlers in Ontario you had perhaps a full proportion of Scotsmen, and though I am an Englishman I have always recognized that it is to the love of education in Scotland, which existed I am afraid long before it became really popular in England, that the success of Scotsmen both in the British Isles and abroad is so largely due. I will be as brief as I can about England, but I just want you to realize that we have between five and six million children in our primary schools, and we keep them there now to the age of 14. It is a very difficult problem to know how to make the best use of these last years of life in primary school. We are experimenting in various directions, but you have got to get an education that will fit not only the child of great ability but the ordinary child and the child that is called the stupid child who very often is the child who makes good later on.

It is much easier to deal with in the towns than in the country. England, if you get outside the big towns, is what I believe you are—essentially a country of small schools. Forty percent. of our schools contain 100 scholars or less, and you may be surprised to hear that, in a country so densely populated as we are. The village school holds a prominent place in rural life.

The difficulty of dealing with it is staffing and accommodation because generally the teacher has to deal, often with an inadequate staff, with 50 to 100 children ranging from 5 to 14 years of age.

In secondary education our problem is this : I don't know whether it has been the case with you, but the one happy result of the war has been to stimulate in England itself a real interest in education such as never existed before, and the real proof of that is the way people have come tumbling over one another to get a secondary and university education. We have nearly double our scholars at secondary schools as between 1914 and last year. We have gone up from 180,000 to 342,000. Full-time students attending universities numbered about 20,000 before the war. The increase there is over 100 per cent., and it has now grown to 42,000.

Now, we are struggling in another direction which you have taken some interest in, and that is to get some kind of common life in the new universities where the college system, such as it is in Cambridge and Oxford, has not hitherto come into being. I believe in Toronto you have set a wonderful example with your Hart House, of which I have heard a great deal, and would like to hear more. We feel this to be important as it is to educate men from books,—an equally important part of their education is rubbing their brains up against one another,—and we do not want to turn out only lettered men but we want to turn out men with a knowledge of life.

And one other aspect of your university life has given me intense pleasure. Lately some of the best graduates from Canada are beginning to play their part in looking after those parts of the Empire where the white man goes often alone to teach, to educate and to bring along the more backward races of the Empire. There is no more self-sacrificing work, there is no finer work; and you see Canadians in the Sudan and in the colonial services, medical men, highly educated men in the civil service helping to bear the white man's burden, and I am old-fashioned enough to believe that it is not enough for a country to concentrate solely on a lot of money for itself. The real spiritual force comes into it when its sons are ready, as for generations Englishmen, Scotsmen and Irishmen have been ready, to give up the comforts of home life and go out on pioneer life and try to help people benefit from things that have benefitted others so much in the years past.

For the adult worker in England we have one or two associations well known to you. There is the Workers' Education Association, which I believe works on this side of the Atlantic. And every university and university college in the British Isles is now engaged in this work. Talking of university work, I want to pay special tribute—I could pay tribute, indeed, to your university here—a special tribute to your medical school. My medical friends tell me that Toronto is second to none in the whole world, and it is from Toronto that your Dr. Banting has presented the world with insulin. That being so, I am sure you will be interested to know that in England in the last 20 years, I should think, since we began it, we have been paying a great deal of attention to medical work in our primary schools. In a great industrial country like ours we soon came to realize that the physical condition of our people was a matter of prime importance, and that it was waste of time and money in many cases to try and educate children who were not fit physically to benefit by that education. And so we have gone in for medical inspection from the earliest ages. From it a great deal of good has been derived—medical advice and medical health from infancy upward, and I can testify myself to the extraordinary improvement in the appearance of our children in the big towns that I have noticed for the last ten or twenty years—far healthier, far better looking, far better kept and better clad.

Now, there is one thing I want you always to bear in mind about Great Britain. It does not apply in the same way to you. You are younger than we are and you had the inestimable advantage of coming over and being able to make a clean start. We could not do that, and industrialism came so quickly in our country, so quickly and swept over the land before we realized what was happening, with the discovery of mechanical inventions, it all swept over us before we realized what was happening. Industrialism, unfortunately, had a long, long start of education. Our compulsory system of education is younger than your Confederation. Your Confederation was three years old when we first had our elementary education act. We have made gigantic strides, but we had yet a great deal to do, and you will easily gather from what I said at the beginning of my observations that the greatest hope we have for our country is in the kindling of that real desire for education which is the only fruit of the war I can look on with satisfaction.

I know that many idealists expect too much, and expect it too quickly. The Minister of Education was complaining the other day that the habit of superficial reading in England was one of the diseases from which we suffer most. That may be true. It is not the fault of elementary education. I have never discovered that the habit of superficial reading was peculiar to any one class in the country. It is quite true, but I think there is more justice in this, that possibly our education is devoted too much to the preparation for professional and industrial careers, and we are apt to lose sight of the importance of education as an end in itself. If you regard education solely from the point of view of enabling you to earn a salary, useful as that may be, you miss one of the best things for which education stands, and also we suffer very much in England—I don't suppose you do, and if you did I would not criticise it—but we suffer very much in England from very clever physicians who are always prepared to prescribe for the body politic with a great deal of agility only equalled by their ignorance of human nature. (Laughter). These people in Europe are called the "intelligentsia", a very ugly word for a very ugly thing, but there is a cure for that; and the cure for the kind of education I have tried to describe is not less education, but more experience, and

I rejoice to think that experience is not in the hands of schoolmasters to teach us. It is in the hands of Providence, which takes very good care we shall gain it.

There are some pessimists abroad, not in Canada, who think that democracy means the destruction of all culture. There is a very learned and very modern historian who has just written a long book to prove that the Roman Empire fell as soon as culture was brought to the masses, but I am much cheered to think that the writer is not only a Russian, but he wrote since the Revolution. The educational system of a democratic state should not only aim at levelling the mass upward as far as it can, but it should follow the example taught over 2,000 years ago by Plato that the Golden children of Iron parents should have their chance to soar away into the blue. Make the high road of learning wide, make it free to all who can walk, but don't prohibit motors or flying. I may confess here to men of a stock so largely English that our English intelligence is sometimes apt to be despised by nations that think they are quicker witted than we are. (Laughter and applause). Our most valuable real estate is our character, its steadiness, its reliability, its personal integrity, its capacity for toleration and, I may add, for a quiet, humorous boredom with things. The general strike in England, which was not without its alarming aspects, illustrated all these qualities in our people. (Applause). We have our defects. Some of them are serious, but I don't propose to discuss them away from home. (Laughter).

Now, I always maintain that the great service education renders to democracy is the same service that we hope to gain from religion. They work, or ought to work, hand in hand. It is to keep the moral weights and measures true to standard, and not only true to standard but true to the highest standards; and let us have them applied impartially to all members of the community from top to bottom. There are those who would empty the conception of state from all moral qualities and they would confine education to a bread and butter business. If I may paraphrase Nurse Cavell's dying words : "Such patriotism is not enough". Moral standards applied as I suggest are the surest way to achieve that fundamental, social unity which is postulated by democracy. It would dissolve the abuses of wealth, the empty parade of luxury, the power of the demagogue ; and it might even, as we are approaching the millenium, curb the sensational press.

Your problems in Canada differ from ours in another way. It has been said that history is a time limit and geography a space circle. Our time limit is longer than yours; your space circle far wider than ours. We are overwhelmed by history, and you by geography. But in spite of that fundamental difference, the moral enterprises upon which as nations we are embarked are identical. You have, it is true, to build up your own spiritual values, the soul of your nation, with a powerful neighbor, a permeating neighbor, to the south of you. We in England have been called insulated. But our development has been profoundly affected by the proximity of the continent of Europe. We cannot escape European influence. We never had done that in our history. We lose and we gain by the proximity of great and influential civilizations. We have, indeed, had to remove our magnetic station at Greenwich lately because the enormous increase of the traffic in that neighborhood disturbed the instruments and deflected them from the true. You cannot move nations about. You cannot put them in a position of isolation from the rest of the world in which they may retain their own peculiar characteristics; and so far as I, a visitor, am able to judge, in modern Canada you are shaping your own destiny with a vigorous independence.

I do not propose to tell you of the evidence that makes me believe that. You know it, and you believe it yourselves, which is what really matters. But all the institutions of your public life are of the deepest interest to a man like myself who has to face, during his comparatively short term of office, problems of great magnitude, the solution of which might affect not only our own Islands but the destinies of the Empire. What I think one wants to look at in a nation to see signs of health are its civic morality, its administration of the law, the influence of the churches, the tone of its press, the freedom of its universities, and I would add last, but not least, the conduct of its sport. If these things are sound, then we may be happy and take courage.

Canada, too—and here I hope I am not being impertinent in offering you a respectful word of congratulation—Canada now is beginning to make her name in the arts, in music and the drama and in literature. Before the war she had done good work. As a result of the war she has written some poems which will run around the world, and I watch that development with the most profound sympathy, with the keenest appreciation and with the greatest hope for the future. I was just looking at the clock. I see I have been some little time. (Cries of "No, no! Go ahead!"). Now, why I chose today to speak to you about education was partly, as I said, because I wanted you to know what we are doing. I wanted you to know that our people are at least keenly interested in that subject. I wanted to express to you what I thought education meant and could do, and I wanted to learn what you are doing here. If I may for a few minutes before I sit down, I would say a word or two on lines on which I have often spoken in England to great masses of our own people. The whole world to-day, with one or two exceptions, is singing loudly the praises of democracy. The whole world renders lip service to democracy. They have learned that cry from the English-speaking peoples. Our great task in the future is to show the world what democracy can mean. There have been democracies in the past; there are democracies to-day, but I like to think that no democracy to-day is even a shadow of the democracies that our children's children may see in years to come. Freedom, which you guard so well in Canada, freedom can only be maintained, as has often been said, by a constant vigilance. A democracy can only be maintained when every man, woman and child in that democracy means to do everything in their power to make that community better, stronger, freer. The reason so many democracies in the past have fallen is because democracy is always in the old world on a knife edge, or, as I have often expressed it, it is a certain point in the circumference of a wheel, and how often has mankind travelled on the circumference of that wheel working their way with infinite labor to a point they call democracy, but when they are there,—go but a little further, democracy becomes license, license becomes anarchy, anarchy becomes tyranny; and man has to fight his way out of tyranny once again. We are convinced that we are on that part of the wheel, secure for the moment from either license on the one hand or tyranny on the other. It is our task to keep it there. We cannot keep it there without an educated people, educated not only in letters but educated in those deep, profound and moral truths on which our forefathers first of all built up the British Isles and went out to build up the Empire. You in Toronto, as much as in any place in the Empire, are the children of these men. From your position your influence on this great continent must be great, and must increase. Resolve, every one of you that you will all give your best thought, your best work, not only to the furthering of the interests of each individual among you, which, of course, is necessary, but to that greater community of which each of us is but a unit. Work for yourself, work for Canada, work for the whole Empire, and determine that so long as we speak the same tongue, obey the same God, obey the same laws, wherever we be situate, we remain to the end of time one people as the only hope of this world.

Amidst a storm of enthusiasm, MR. C. A. C. JENNINGS, Vice-President of the Empire Club, moved a vote of thanks to the Prime Minister. He said: "Mr. Chairman and gentlemen, for the reason that the President of the Empire Club himself is not with us to-day the moving of this vote has been assigned to me. Any words I have to say to you will not do justice to the address we have just heard—an address from one of the foremost Englishmen of the time interpreting to us the views and policy of his own country mainly on the subject of education. I hope that he goes back home to interpret there, the ideas of this Province, at all events, on the subject of education, he will be able to gratify them by showing what correspondence there is between their ideas and our own, and that is not an accidental correspondence. It is a consequence of our belief in the models of the motherland—a consequence of our partiality towards these models and ideas. It would be hard to imagine any man at any time more competent to do this work of interpreting the Mother Country to the Dominion and the Dominion back to the Mother Country than the very eminent man who is at the head of the British Government.

After paying further graceful tribute to Mr. Baldwin, MR. JENNINGS said, "I wish to say in the name of the joint clubs that they are very proud to have had him as their guest to-day; that they shall treasure up the wise words—the statesmanly and kinsmanly message he has left with us; that they will pass it on in the records of the proceedings. They are deeply thankful to him and wish him and Mrs. Baldwin happy days throughout their visit to Canada—(Applause)—a pleasant voyage home and hope they will find occasion to come often and renew the warm friendships they have made since they came here.

THE NEWSPAPER PRESS

AN ADDRESS BY THE RIGHT HONOURABLE LORD HEWART OF BURY, LORD CHIEF JUSTICE OF ENGLAND,

(At a joint meeting of the Empire and Canadian Clubs. Toronto.)

25th August, 1927.

COLONEL ALEXANDER FRASER, President of the Empire Club, presided, and briefly introduced LORD HEWART, who was received with cheers, and spoke as follows :—

Mr. Chairman, My Lords, and Gentlemen, my first words to you this afternoon must be words of sincere thanks to the kind hosts who have given me the opportunity of meeting this representative gathering in this great and wonderful city. And I thank you also, and thank you most sincerely, for the cordiality with which you have greeted me.

Gentlemen, not many days ago an eminent lawyer, whose name nothing could induce me to mention—(Laughter)—said in a company exclusively composed of lawyers, that he knew he was addressing lawyers without distinction. (Laughter). I am bound to say, sir, that the phrase appeared to me to be a phrase of undoubted, though I am sure uncalculated, ambiguity. (Laughter). But nobody will have any doubt that Chief Justice Taft is a lawyer of distinction, and I remember—and every hour that I stay in your hospitable country makes me remember with more and more vividness—a remark which Chief Justice Taft made a few years ago in the hall of the Inner Temple, in London when he was enjoying, or at any rate taking part in (Laughter) the thirteenth successive banquet in thirteen days. When he rose at ten o'clock in the evening to reply to the toast of his health, he said he thought he must adopt the language which he had used once in Minnesota at half past three in the morning when he thanked his hosts for their terrific hospitality (Laughter). Gentlemen, this terrific hospitality carries with it, among other penalties, as I am finding out, the duty of making a terrific number of new speeches (Laughter), unless indeed you have the fortune or misfortune to be a politician, for whom topics are made, ready-made, for whom enthusiasm is always waiting if he touches or happens to know the right note (Laughter). Instead of being a politician I am a person who at any rate is not expected to talk about topics of political controversy. It is therefore not always easy to find a text. I was wondering this morning whether I should say something on that text in the Gospel of St. Matthew, "Lord, it is good for us to be here" (Laughter and applause). Of course if I had chosen that text I would have gone on to suggest that we should erect three tabernacles, one for the Canadian Bar Association, one for the Empire Club and the Canadian Club, if indeed that is not saying the same thing twice, because I cannot conceive of the Empire without Canada —(Hear, hear, and applause)—and I absolutely refuse to contemplate Canada as something apart from the Empire. (Hear, hear, and applause). And the third tabernacle ? What should I have suggested for the third tabernacle? Well, I think that perhaps that might be reserved for graduates of the University of Toronto, with power to add to their numbers (Laughter and applause).

Then I wondered whether I might not find a text in the story which you all know so well of the visit of the Queen of Sheba to Solomon. You remember the words which are used, I think in the First Book of Kings, that on her visit to Solomon she came with a very great train. Now that is the first reference so far as I know, the first literary reference, to the Canadian Pacific Railway. (Laughter). I also came with a very great train, and, you know, the analogy does not end there, because you recollect that when she had seen with her own eyes some of the wonders of that land she said that the half had not been told her. But that is one respect at any rate, Mr.

Chairman, in which the comparison if it were made, would undoubtedly break down, because you recollect that the faithful historian concludes that part of his narrative when he has described the stupefaction which she felt at all the wonders of the wealth and the possibilities which she saw, you remember the historian says —let me give his very words—"there was no more spirit in her" (Laughter). And that, gentlemen, I think, at any rate so far as I am aware, is the first literary reference to prohibition (Laughter). And I think it shows clearly, among other things, that the hotel manager had not been to the Queen of Sheba and told her that she would get everything she wanted in Room 602 (Laughter).

Now, gentlemen, these being topics which are impossible, in what direction am I to turn? There are a great many delicate topics, and you know a delicate topic has been defined, I think accurately defined, as a topic which lends itself to indelicate treatment. Avoiding all those topics, or at least I hope avoiding them, I propose to say a word or two to you about the newspaper press, and I will presently remind you of the text of this discourse.

Now, gentlemen, there is a story, a familiar story—all stories, I am quite sure, are familiar here—of a middle-aged professor who was about to marry a lady famed for her beauty, her learning, and her wit. When an inquisitive person asked him a question about her, he replied in some such way as this: "My future wife has her nose slightly on one side, she is irritable when thwarted, and her dates are wrong in her essay on Spinoza. On the other hand, there is much to be said for her; indeed, she has certain qualities which I have seldom met with elsewhere." Now it is entirely in that spirit that readers of the newspaper press permit themselves to think of some blemishes which it does not always escape, some perils into which it sometimes falls.

Matthew Arnold, as you remember, said that he was not an enemy to Nonconformists; on the contrary, what he desired was their perfection. In like manner those who, while they entertain a mental reservation on behalf of their favorite newspaper, venture to make remarks about other newspapers, have no other desire or injunction than "Be ye therefore perfect." Let us then, in that and no other spirit, see what has been said about the newspaper press by persons who have written in it and presumably, therefore, know something about it.

Leslie Stephen, as you know, pleasantly opens his "Hours in a Library" with a series of opinions of authors about books. It may be helpful to begin these few remarks with the opinions of one or two writers about newspapers. John Morley not only wrote a great deal for the press but he had also the experience of editing an evening newspaper and a monthly review. He speaks of the newspaper press as that huge engine for keeping discussion on a low level (Laughter). He says that the multiplication of journals duplicating brawling judgments unashamed on all things all day long, has done much to deaden the small stock of individuality in the public mind. It has done much to make vulgar ways of looking at things and vulgar ways of speaking of them stronger and stronger, by formulating and repeating and stereotyping them incessantly from morning till afternoon, and from year's end to year's end."

Again, John Ruskin, who in his time turned out a lot of copy for the newspapers, has much to say of what he calls "the hireling scribes of the newspaper press, who daily pawn the dirty linen of their souls for the price of a bottle of sour wine and a cigar" (Laughter).

And again, not to multiply examples, Sir EdwardCook, brilliant scholar and admirable writer, the editor successively of I forget how many evening and morning newspapers, which somehow were always being sold by the proprietors behind his back, said in the year 1903, as I have the very best means of knowing, "Journalism has ceased to be an occupation for an educated man" (Laughter).

Well, Mr. Chairman, judgments like these are undoubtedly severe. Are they at all true ? And if so, what is the explanation ? And now I come to my text. You remember that at a very early stage of the Christian era a certain person sought to get near to a certain source of illumination, and it is said "He could not for the press" (Laugther). He could not for the press. The obstruction in that instance was perhaps the more remarkable as we are told that Zaccheus was the chief among the publicans and he was rich (Laughter).

Now, sir, in my humble opinion, the explanation of the trouble, whatever its precise dimensions may be, is two-fold. I say two-fold, not three-fold. There was a speaker, you remember, in the Oxford Union, a speaker with a very agreeable lisp, who traced drunkenness in England to three causes; "The firtht," he said, "wath the adulteration of liquor; the thecond wath the dethire for drink; and the third, and above all, thir, wath the dethire for more." (Laughter) But, Mr. Chairman, in the present case two causes are enough. One is the printing machine, and the other is what it prints (Laughter). Gentlemen, have you ever reflected what an appalling thing a printing machine is ? There is a doctrine of the common law that if a man brings a wild beast upon his premises he must in the interests of the public control it. But the very purpose of these wild beasts is to give birth at ridiculously short intervals to a vast offspring, a multitudinous litter which shall circulate far and wide. And so monstrous is the fecundity of the beasts that the offspring of every one of them has, or at any rate claims to have, the largest circulation in the world. (Laughter and cheers). Mr. Chairman, the printing machine is indeed a wonderful and terrible weapon. Many of us have seen it, and not to put too fine a point upon the matter, have smelt it, at work. You put an enormous roll of nice clean paper at one end, you set the wild beast going, and at the other end in the twinkling of an eye there come out like so many snowflakes, soiled by fog, thousands and tens of thousands, and hundreds of thousands of newspapers, all printed, folded, and counted. Sir, the printing machine could behave like that even thirty years ago; to-day I gather the newspapers come out of the machine in wrappers, duly addressed and stamped, the wrapper being a receipt for an unpaid premium of insurance, and the stamp being affixed by means of gum which is not only adhesive but also nutritious (Laughter). And the awful, the dreadful, the devastating fact is that anybody can buy a printing machine if he happens to have enough money. Consider the consequences of this alarming form of investment. If a man invests a million or two in soap or mustard or chocolate or biscuits or automobiliousness, nothing in particular happens. If his friends thought him a wise man before, they will think him a wise man still. If they thought him a donkey before they will think him a donkey still. Substantially in every case, as they say in the House of Commons, the *status quo* is maintained (Laughter). But let the very same man, being by nature, training, and ingrained habit, a perfect donkey, invest his odd millions in what is called newspaper enterprise, and a very different result may follow. His protemporaneous opinions or caprices, expressed with the entire shamelessness and the inexhaustible vocabulary of Falstaff, may, through mere mechanical multiplication, shatter the reputations of individuals, deflect the policy of a nation, and even make hay of the peace of two hemispheres. Sir, it is easy and perhaps comforting to suggest that this is a slightly exaggerated view, but I should like to know is the defence of the newspaper to be this, that its articles do not matter because nobody reads them and its news columns do not matter because nobody believes them ? When somebody said to Douglas Jerrold, "Punch is not so good as it used to be," you remember that the wise man answered, "No, and it never was" (Laughter).

Let us beware, of course in this matter, as in other matters, of an evil heart of unbelief. It may be that the grace, the wisdom, and the understanding exhibited by the press to-day are not less but more than the grace, wisdom and understanding exhibited by the press many years ago. It may be that what a distinguished critic of a quarter of a century ago described as "the bouncing and brutal realism" of many of our leading papers, is not more bouncing or more brutal to-day than it was then. And it may be, in spite of some evidence to the contrary that the domination of a purely commercial purpose, and the tyranny of personal or public stunts, as they are called, are not really more rampant now than they used to be. These and other questions of comparison may deserve careful examination. But in the words of the philosopher, they are matter for a separate treatise.

Avoiding comparisons, whether invidious or not, let us consider for a moment what it is that the newspaper printing machine does, in fact, print. Some years ago the editor of a newspaper published in Oxford, a University magazine, at the close of his editorship reviewed in a memorable article the topics which he had treated, and the method which he had observed. "All these," he wrote, "and other phases of thought and action the magazine has embraced as ocassion offered, has nourished as long as convenience served, and has laid aside as the lessons of public interests or the rise of new excitement seemed to suggest." And a little later on he added "To criticism the paths are many. The voice of the magazine is one, and of all editors alike this much may be said, they have never hesitated to stand for the right when they felt that public opinion was with them" (Laughter) "they have always protested against the wrong when they saw it to be unpopular; they have stated the truth when they have happened to know the facts, and they never hesitated to resort to fiction when they have been convinced of its superior validity. They have never employed the lumbering and tedious methods of demonstration when they have felt that they could rely upon the credulity of their readers. They have never asked for gratitude when they found self-satisfaction a surer road to happiness. Their merits have not met with general recognition, but they have not taken to the blues." Don't you observe that pleasant phrase, "Of all editors alike this much may be said"? Perhaps the ingredient of universality is a little excessive, but let me ask you to reflect for one moment upon the materials among which chiefly, though not exclusively, newspapers move and work. It has been said that if you would love mankind you should not expect too much from them, and it would be no less grotesque to expect a newspaper to be competent, complete, and impartial history than it would be to expect it to be an oratorio or an epic poem. Not long ago in a leading article in a leading newspaper in London I read these words, "Normal people attract less attention than abnormal, and eccentricities and heresies have in any subject a better dress than orthodoxy." Precisely. There is no copy in what is normal and orthodox. If, for example, the country vicar lives on terms of unity, peace and concord with his wife, there is not a line of copy in it. But if his devices and desires are such as to induce him to observe one day after dinner, "My dear, you are too fat," and thereupon to shoot the lady dead, our special correspondent gets busy at once. Our criminal investigator assumes the role of the sleuth hound, and the shop window is ablaze with headlines. What is sauce for domestic is sauce for international relations. In the humdrum life of peace and amity, there is nothing doing. But if a cloud, no bigger than a man's hand, appears upon the horizon, the whole vast apparatus of international mischiefmaking becomes on the instant a miracle of competitive zeal (Applause). Now, sir, when Burke spoke of that chief defence of nations, the best opinion is he was not thinking of the newspaper press (Laughter).

I pass over the whole field of deliberate and calculated offence; the paragraph which is the work of an assassin, the article which is a breach of confidence, the report which would make any respectable tomcat vomit. (Laughter). And I pass over every other sort of clumsy or ingenious wickedness. The point is, that the very nature of the subject matter, and the very circumstances of production offer pitfalls and temptations of a perilous kind. It is sometimes said that the journalist is like a barrister, he may be the mouthpiece of his client. But the analogy is false. The barrister may not, but the journalist must tell the jury what his own personal opinion upon the facts is. Or it is sometimes said that the journalist is like a judge, his function is to sift and to marshall the evidence. But again the analogy is false. The journalist not only marshalls the evidence but he also collects it, and he is responsible both for that which appears and for that which does not. Who was it who said "Let me compose a newspaper's headlines, and I care not who writes its opinions.?" I know who it was, but I am not going to tell you, who said not many years ago, "After all the real power of the press is the power of suppression." Somehow or other our great grandfathers persuaded themselves that the newspaper duty was a tax upon knowledge. So true is it that the errors of one generation are the calamities of another, and the sins of the fathers are visited upon the children.

Well, sir, I have merely touched a bit of the fringe of a large and varied subject, and I do not presume even to suggest remedies. I suppose that you cannot abolish newspapers utterly, and probably in the existing state of parties there is no patriotic statesman who will have the heart to link the newspaper and duty, and to condemn it; but it may perhaps sometimes be right to reflect, at least in a Pickwickian sense that the newspaper press, and even the individual newspaper, cannot fairly be regarded as one undivided whole. On the contrary there are in it forces which make for mischief, and forces which make as hard as they can in the opposite direction, and that the business of good citizens, to the best of such minor opportunities as may occur to them, is to resist the one and to help the other of the two forces.

Gentlemen, I thank you for the patience with which you have heard me. I have been dwelling, and dwelling deliberately, upon one side of the question only. If I live (Laughter) and if I return as I hope to return (Applause) to this dangerous country, I will try to say something to you upon the good side of the newspaper press; and in the meantime I will try to find out what it is. (Laughter and applause).

MR. MEGANN, Vice-President of the Canadian Club said: Gentlemen, you would not wish this afternoon to pass by without presenting a few words of thanks to the distinguished guest, for the most entertaining address he has given us. I have great pleasure in moving that we tender a very hearty vote of thanks to the speaker.

THE CHAIRMAN: I shall ask the Honorable Mr. Ferguson to second this motion.

PREMIER FERGUSON:—Mr. President, you do me honor indeed in asking me to voice what I know is the unanimous sentiment of this splendid gathering to-day. While endorsing the vote of appreciation expressed by the Vice-President of the Canadian Club, I would like to give assurance to the Lord Chief Justice that we apparently in this country have not gone entirely to the bow-wows as they have in the Old Country (Laughter). Our newspaper press, with few and conspicuous exceptions (Laughter) conduct themselves most admirably, and of course I have not any political idea in mind in saying that (Laughter). Of course there are exceptions. But I should tell you, sir, as a public man in the Province of Ontario for almost a quarter of a century, that my relations with the press, whether sympathetic to the political party to which I belong or not, have always been the most happy; and again I say, with few exceptions I have always found them entirely reliable. Of course I think we have some members that write ante-mortem obituaries for you—harmless things, but they still sometimes require explanation. I have read in the newspapers, some newspapers, my own political obituary a number of times, and I have read as well of the dire punishments and worries and torture and suffering that was to be meted out to me after I had passed away politically. And I have even read my physical obituary in one newspaper. That one, I may say, was good enough to refrain from making any reference to the future (Laughter). I am quite sure that those here, even the newspaper men, will appreciate the spirit in which the Lord Chief Justice has spoken (Hear, hear, and applause). I think I can say frankly that never have

I heard a greater masterpiece of serious humor, instructive and suggestive, given in potions that even the youngest newspaper man can take without revolting or nausea, and it will be to his advantage. I am sure we are all delighted to have the Lord Chief Justice here and delighted with his splendid address, and we will wait with impatience the enlightenment he is to get on the further examination he is to make (Applause).

THE CHAIRMAN : Lord Hewart, I have much pleasure in conveying to you this hearty vote of appreciation. (Applause.)

LORD HEWART : Mr. Chairman, I thank you, and I thank all of you very much, and I hasten to add three things. First, I entirely agree with every word that has fallen from the wise lips of the Prime Minister. Secondly, I can say also that my relations with the press have always been most happy, at any rate up to now. (Laughter.) And in the third place, I am quite sure that my brethren of the press know a joke when they see it, and they know when things are said in a Pickwickian sense. The mischief of it is, that when I am serious I am thought to be joking, and when I am joking I am thought to be serious. (Applause.)

SHAKESPEARE'S BIRTHPLACE

An Address by His Worship, ARCHIBALD FLOWER, Ex-Mayor of Stratford-on-Avon, England.

(*Links of Empire Series*)

13th October, 1927

Colonel Fraser, President of the Club, introduced the speaker. Mr. Flower was received with applause the audience rising. He said: Mr. President, I will first of all clear up one little remark, for although on six different occasions—shall I say for my sins—I have been mayor of Stratford-on-Avon. I no longer occupy that position, which I feel is an honour in this country, though while in Chicago, when they attached the title of "mayor" to me I did not feel in that particular town at that particular moment that it was a very great honour. (Laughter.) But, as Chairman of the Trustees and Guardians of Shakespeare's Memorial, I feel it is a great honour for me to have an opportunity of chatting to you—I will not say speaking—for I am no orator, and no great scholar, but I hope that by sincerity I will make up what I lack in other respects.

Some of you will understand if I tell you that my chief pleasure in life is fox-hunting (laughter) and instead of following the hounds in Warwickshire, as I have done for the last fifty years, I am out here trying to give a message to ordinary sport-loving business men, trying to tell people like you what Shakespeare means, and what a lot of help the knowledge and love of Shakespeare will give to us, no matter what our job in life may be. (Hear, hear.)

I was lucky enough in England to get the aid of a very distinguished advisory committee to assist the governors of the theatre in our big problem of re-building the theatre which was burned down last year. We got representatives of the arts, and the best men we could find at the time of every profession; we got a director of the National Gallery, the President of the Royal Institute of British Architects; we got Sir James Barrie, representing literature; Grenville Barker, representing the theatre, and I was fortunate in being able to secure Reginald McKenna. I got him because in 1896 I happened to be rowing for Cambridge, and he was the ninth man in that crew, and he got his blue the next year. (Applause.) I told my friend that when he addressed the Canadian Club here he would make his address a lot more interesting if he would fill in with Shakespeare. (Laughter.)*

Unfortunately, Shakespeare is often considered dull and uninteresting. When I was at school, we were forced to take the most difficult passages of Shakespeare and analyze them. I was always in trouble at school, and was often punished by having to write a hundred lines, and this occurred so often that my handwriting was injured, so that the method was changed, and instead of writing a hundred lines I was required to learn them. (Laughter.) The result was that in a very short space of time I had learned the whole of that wonderful piece of English, Richard II. Now, can you imagine any worse introduction to Shakespeare, or anything more calculated to make a boy hate him instead of love him, than to be given such a task ? Well, I took very great care that my children did not go through the same thing. They fortunately elected to be born at Stratford-on-Avon, where they had an opportunity of seeing his birthplace in that beautiful town, and they learned to love the beauty of the place, and this made them love their Shakespeare, and that has influenced their lives.

I have just been reading a long letter from my soldier son, from Nashmur, a vivid word-picture of having got three ibex and various other things up in an altitude of 16,000 or 17,000 feet. I attribute that boy's ability to write interesting and picturesque letters almost entirely to the fact that his powers of observation and expression have been helped by his intimate knowledge of Shakespeare.

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* Mr. Reginald McKenna gave an address to the Canadian Club, Toronto, the day before.

Now, originally Shakespeare did not write his plays to be read. Indeed, he carefully guarded them against publication. He wrote them to be played upon the stage. He was himself an actor and he was a wonderful play-writer, but he was anxious that the company in which he was financially interested and for whom he was writing those plays, should alone have the benefit of them. So they were not published at the time, but they were carefully kept locked up. He wrote them for the stage, and the way to get the real life and the real gauge of Shakespeare is to see his plays acted. So we have put ourselves to the task, which has been continued now for forty-eight years, of presenting the plays at Stratford as well and as frequently as possible. We play practically all through the summer there, and we find people who come there and see the plays get the proper point of view, instead of the wrong point of view, as I did. Once you get that love, it will follow as the night the day that it is going to be a help and assistance to you.

In talking to your President we agreed that if we have our Shakespeare and our Bible we can practically solve all the great problems. They are having a bit of a rustle up at Winnipeg at the present time, and yet I feel that if you look to Shakespeare as a guide, even in politics, he can keep you extraordinarily straight; he has such a sane view. He was all for law and order. He was down, like a ton of bricks, on mob law. The same way in questions of religion. We do not know in the very least what particular sect Shakespeare belonged to, but the religion that runs through his plays, if we try to follow it, will keep every one of us on the right lines. May I give you just one example ? I was lunching yesterday with the Arts and Letters Club, and somebody came up from one of your newspapers and wanted an interview, and amongst other things he said to me, "What is your opinion on prohibition ?" (Laughter.) Well, I was not going to give him my opinion upon prohibition, but I said, "Look here, go back and learn your Shakespeare, you will get a very good point of view of it" (Laughter). "Go and read Othello. Read that wonderful scene with Cassius, where he has been given too much to drink. Read that most marvellous description of the evil, the disease of excess, and how bitterly at the end he speaks— 'Alas, that men should put an enemy in their mouths to steal away their brains,' and then turn to the other side of the picture and read Twelfth Night, and you will hear old Toby heartily saying, 'Dost thou think because thou art virtuous there should be no more cakes and ale ?' " (Laughter). So there you are; he holds the balance; he takes the obvious, the sane view.

I told you that I was a sportsman, that I loved fox-hunting, and I am foolish enough, although I am sixty-two this month, to want to play polo (Laughter). I want to tell you that Shakespeare is extraordinarily useful to me as a lover of horses, when I am buying a hunter or a pony (Laughter). When I am looking at an animal I just run through in my mind the most marvellous description that has ever been written of a horse in five lines, enumerating all the salient points, and not having a word too many, and naming everything that a horse has got to have if he is a good one. I hope I shall remember it all my life :

"So did this horse excel the common one,
In shape, in carriage, colour, pace and stride.
Round-hoof'd, short-jointed, fetlocks shag and long,
Broad breast, full eye, small head and nostril wide,
High crest, short ears, straight legs and passing strong,
Thin mane, thick tail, broad buttock, tender hide;
Look, what a horse should have he did not lack,
Save a proud rider on so proud a back."

(Applause.)

If there are any of you present who love horses, if you can tell me how that description can be improved, I shall be very grateful (Laughter). If I had the time I could talk to you for half an hour and prove to you conclusively that Shakespeare must have qualified as a veterinary surgeon, whatever else he did (Laughter). The simple fact is that he had a marvellous power of observation, an extraordinary memory, a vivid imagination, so that he could take all these things that he got stored up, and then give them back in those wonderful plays.

Now, I want to give one more instance of how he helps. Last year in May we had a general strike in England. We purposely put on Coriolanus, because it is a wonderful picture; if we had altered the names it was practically a picture of what was going on, and we felt sure that it was the right thing, but it was a very curious coincidence that the strike was declared to start at midnight, and on the evening before we happened to be playing Richard II. Now anybody who has British blood in his veins always feels his blood course a little bit more quickly when they hear our greatest national poet's description of the land he loved so well :

"This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a wall,
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands;
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England"
—(Applause.)

Now, very often in the cut editions they stop there. It is rather good "curtain," as they say, but we gave practically the whole text, and I remember that listening to the last two lines of that speech absolutely hit us between the eyes, where old John o' Gaunt, just as he is dying, says :

"This England, that was wont to conquer others, has
made a shameful conquest of herself."

It set us all thinking—what was going to happen the next day? We did not know what was going to happen; we had not been up against that fence before. But the spirit that Shakespeare has taught all of us came to the rescue, all right; the sense of humour that he accomplished came to the rescue; the grit that he inculcates came to the rescue. I went up to London the next day, and instead of taking an hour and a half by train it took us five hours. We all got out at every station and helped with the milk cans, everybody in good humour. When I got to London people were tramping away to their work, all smiling. My two boys had rushed off, of course; my soldier son, who was in the cavalry regiment, was driving a motor bus. Everybody had got his little car, racing about, taking policemen here and there where there was a little trouble. You might see a great hole in a pane of glass, but instead of closing it up there you found a huge placard with the words: "Please throw all bricks through this hole" (Laughter). Then you would see another one—"This is Guy's hospital bus; this is Guy's hospital driver, and this is Guy's hospital conductor, and anybody who interferes with this bus will be a Guy's hospital patient" (Laughter). When you found that the strikers themselves were playing football with the police, that is a thing that beat the French; they could not understand it (Laughter). And when you found the spirit of grit and fun and good humour, that is what broke the strike (Applause). And I maintain that is what Shakespeare teaches us; the old man is right every time. Go back to the theatre, and when you get that in the back of your mind you are not at least surprised to hear the outpouring of King John—"Naught shall make us rue, if England to herself do prove but true" (Applause).

Living at Stratford as I do, another thing that strikes one as very wonderful is the world-wide appeal that Shakespeare makes. He knows no barrier of race, creed or colour. Over sixty nations presented their flags, and the heads of the nations were represented. The King gave us the Union Jack, and it does one good when one is in this country wherever one goes to see the old Union Jack, and to hear the real fervour with which "God Save the King" is always sung (Applause). The Dominion flags are grouped around the Union Jack in a semicircle, and then in three large rows right down are the flags of all the nations, and on Shakespeare's birthday, at 12 o'clock on the 23rd of April, at the sound of the bugle, the representatives of all those nations unfurl the flag representing their own nation. I have seen it over and over again, and never have I seen it without a big lump in my throat. I see their flags fluttering out into the breeze and dipping in honour of Shakespeare (Applause). It is a very wonderful thing. It is the only thing that I can think of upon which the whole world is in agreement. We quarrel about religions, we quarrel about politics; but on that one subject the only place for argument at all amongst some people is whether he ever wrote the plays. (Laughter). That does not worry me (Hear, hear, and applause). Whoever wrote the plays must have been a Warwickshire man (Laughter). There are Warwickshire flowers and Warwickshire names, but the main thing is that whoever wrote them must have been an actor, because the stage-craft of Shakespeare is the most wonderful thing of all, and of course it would have been a physical impossibility for a learned man like Bacon to have accomplished it, because he failed to feel matters like Shakespeare himself. But personally I do like to come across Baconians, because it gives me an opportunity of rubbing something in on the question of finance. Finance is a subject which I do not touch, because I am here to get people interested in Shakespeare, not to ask for building funds, or anything of that sort; but one of the first communications I got after the fire was a very charming letter from an American lady who said : "You know what I think about the authorship of the plays, but I am enclosing you £100 towards the rebuilding of the theatre, because whatever happens we must have the plays, no matter who wrote them" (Laughter). So if I happen to come across a person who is benighted enough to still be a Baconian, I say, "Come on and be a Baconian, and do the same as this lady." (Laughter).

This universal love of Shakespeare was borne in upon one after the fire. I happened to be playing golf at the time, that afternoon when they told me that the old theatre was burning. It had been built forty-eight years, very largely of wood on the inside, and it just simply went up like a rocket. I went to the fire, and I felt as it was burning that there was good in that event, because I said, "We have outgrown the theatre, and although this building is being burned down, its past cannot be destroyed." We telegraphed off for our directorate, and we saw the directors of the movie house, which happens to be a good one in Stratford, and held rather more people than our own theatre, and arranged for occupying it the next morning, and we soon had workmen digging out foundations and building the stage at the back of it. We built the present rooms for about forty people; we remade all the scenery; and inside of five weeks we had got that building completely equipped, and reopened our festival on the date advertised—not a bad bit of hustling (Applause).

Well, we felt that it was essential to carry on, to keep up the continuity of the plays. As soon as the fire occurred I began to get messages from all over the world. I will give you just two or three examples, because they are extraordinarily interesting, and they show the world-wide feeling. One of the first was from Turkey, a most beautifully-worded message in most wonderful English. Then one from the King of England, not only a message, but he enclosed a cheque for £500 (Applause). A little further on we heard from the Ameer of Afghanistan; Shakespeare had got there. I did not know that he was a lover of Shakespeare, but he loved him to this tune, that he sent not only a beautiful message, but a cheque for £150. One of the things that struck me more than anything else was when I got a letter from our British officer in Tokio sending £250 as a result of the performances of Shakespeare's Coriolanus at the National Theatre in Tokio (Applause).

Well, if all those nations feel that they want to come in in order to see that the memory of Shakespeare is kept green in the best possible way, is it not natural that those of us who speak English, of which he was the past master, ought also to feel that they want to become partners in this enterprise ? Up until the fire this job had been a one-town job. Little Stratford, with its less than ten thousand inhabitants, had put up over half a million dollars in order to keep the thing going and build a theatre, and continue the plays. Now we feel that the whole world wants to come in. Your next-door neighbour, the United States, are extraordinarily enthusiastic, and I felt that as I know so many in this country I wanted to come out here and have an opportunity of meeting some of the inhabitants of this great Dominion and telling them of the work that we are trying to do—not to beg of them, but to let them know that there is a privilege of becoming partners, in however small a way, in doing honour to this great Englishman.

It is not only a question of building a wonderful theatre, although that is a very difficult problem. Those of you who happen to know Stratford will realize that putting up a building big enough for a theatre, high enough to fly your scenery, on the banks of that beautiful river Avon, close to an old-world town without a high building in it, is a terrific problem for an architect. We opened a competition, and the architect will be chosen in the first week in November. But what I am after is to see that what is done inside that theatre shall be worthy of the man whom we are trying to honour (Applause). Do you realize that when you go to almost any country speaking another language than English, fine drama is realized to be essential in the lives of the people ? You go to Germany, and you will see Shakespeare constantly put on, and at very low prices, so that an artisan can bring the whole of his family and see the plays. Why is that ? Because the state sees to it that it is lifted out of the ordinary commercial rut, and they make it possible.

Now, we in England, and probably you over here, do not believe in too much state control. I do not plead for state control in England, for if they subsidized the theatre there they would want to control the theatre. That is much too tricky a job for any government to entertain, for you would have not only all sorts of heavy financial problems, but you would come up against the artistic temperament of the people who play there. I am not pleading for that. What I am pleading for is that what the State will not do should be done by individuals who realize that it is something worth while, who realize the importance of making people love their Shakespeare by seeing the plays beautifully given, and by getting the people to get together and say, "Now, we are going to do for these particular districts what the state does in other countries; we are going to make it possible for you to have the finest theatre available, and not always to have to keep your eye on the box office; but you have to do this thing because it is fine, because it is beautiful, and because it is worth while." That means an endowment fund. I am hoping that as a result of this fire we shall find that we have a fine fund to invest, not only to carry on our summer programme when the world comes to Stratford, but as soon as our summer festival is over to have theatre companies ready to come out and bring that message to the world; and the very first place I want them to come to is Canada. (Applause).

Now, I hope, sir, I have said enough to help you to realize, at any rate, how this job has got hold of me, and why I am here today meeting all of you instead of fox-hunting in England; and I hope that I have said enough to make all of you determined that if we are able next fall to bring our company, in which all the small parts are well represented, to this town, that everyone of you will have the privilege of putting your backs into it, and driving. I have no doubt that the people you have in Toronto will want to have their share in helping to do honour to that great dramatist, that great Englishman, William Shakespeare (Loud applause).

The thanks of the club were tendered to the speaker, amid applause.

PUBLIC SCHOOL INFLUENCE ON BRITISH CHARACTER

AN ADDRESS BY R. W. LIVINGSTONE, M.A., D.Litt,. LL.D., PRESIDENT AND VICE-CHANCELLOR, QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY, BELFAST.

(*Links of Empire Series*)

20th October, 1927.

DR. LIVINGSTONE was introduced by COLONEL FRASER and spoke as follows:—Mr. President and Gentleman, I was asked to speak about Ireland, but when I went to Ireland to Queen's University I realized from the first that there were two subjects I must not touch in public, and they were politics and religion. There is no subject I should like to speak about more, but really the only sort of speech I could make is one which would leave you doubtful whether I was a member of the Ancient Order of Hibernians or the Black Preceptory. All I will say about Ireland is that we are just as peaceful in the north as you are here. I should say that political relations with the South are really quite good. I do not think myself that the majority in the North has altered its opinion about union, but I do think that practically everyone would be glad to see the South settle its own problems with prosperity and success to itself. Our own great difficulty in the North now, I think, is an industrial one. The linen trade, of course, is badly hit, and it has not yet revived, and that is reflected everywhere. Coming here, and going over the University, for instance, I envy them their resources, and the things which they can have, which we have to do without. But in spite of these difficult times, we have one great asset of a gilt edged nature—I can say this because I am not an Ulsterman by birth—we have the North Irish character (Applause). Personally I think there is a bigger proportion both of ability and character in the North of Ireland than you will find in most places of the world (Applause).

Now I will give you what is my main speech, and that is, The English Public School and its Influence on the character of the nation. There are of course two main types of school apart from the elementary school in England. One is what we generally call the Secondary School, which is very much like your public schools here. The fees, I suppose, range from about $100 a year upwards, and perhaps downward. The teaching is very good, just as good as in the schools I am going to speak of, but they are not residential schools. The other schools are what we in England call Public Schools. They are essentially residential; most of them have no boarders at all. The fees there range—well I was looking at the fees of one rather ordinary Public School the other day, and the mere fees were $875 a year, whereas I suppose at places like Winchester and Eton, I do not suppose you could get through under much less than $1,250 or $1,500 a year. Of course I do not want to unduly praise them, but I do think they have had an immense influence on England in the last sixty years, and if I were asked what man had more influence in England than any other in the last seventy years, I should say it was Thomas Arnold of Rugby in the forties, who, I do not say created, but he practically made the English Public School (Applause). The school I happened to be at was in a beautiful country. It had beautiful buildings; and the boys who first lived in those rooms where we lived, were being trained to be priests in a Europe which was still under the undivided control of the Roman Catholic Church. Those boys had, generation after generation, seen all the great events of English history; the Wars of the Roses, the Reformation, the Civil Wars, the Reform Bill. I suppose the people living just where we were living, knew of Agincourt and the Armada and Naseby and Blenheim, and the taking of Quebec, and the loss of Yorkton, and Trafalgar, and Waterloo, all in turn. Well, that was a sort of unconscious education in what history is, and certainly it gave one some feeling of how much error and wisdom, success and failure, effort, courage, self-sacrifice, as well as other less desirable qualities had gone to make the history of that small island which has played such a big part in the world, which has got its sons in every country of the earth, and whose history is your own Canadian heritage and ours.

I should say there were really two stages in one's school life. The first were one's early days as a boy. The part of the school I was in is called College, and it had seventy members. One had a fortnight there to learn the peculiar language of the place, and also to learn one's duties; and then one's duties began. They began at 6.15 a.m. when the school bell went, and I had to get up and call every boy of the eleven boys in our dormitory, and then I went and had a cold bath. You always had to have a cold bath all the year round, and a very good thing too. Then every five minutes I had to call all those eleven boys, till five minutes to seven, and tell them what the time was, and they got up in a sort of hierarchy, the prefects, the oldest boys, last of all at a quarter to seven and dressed in a quarter of an hour. We did not have any fires; we had instead faggots made of brushwood, and they burned furiously for about five minutes. You were splendidly warm for five minutes, and you lived on the warmth of that for about two or three hours, and then had another. It was my business to light them. Then in the evening I had to go up to the dormitory again and sweep it out and light the fire and see whether there were enough mugs to clean people's teeth with, and if there were not enough mugs, you just had to go to another dormitory and, as we put it, make them. Another peculiar thing was I had to light the thing called functure. This was a candle made of very evil-smelling tallow, with a red wick in it, a mediaeval thing which burned all night in the room. The legend of the origin of the functure is a curious one. There was a boy who very much hated another boy in his dormitory, or was said to have done so, and he got up in the middle of the night to murder him, and there being no functure and no candle to give light in those days, he murdered his brother by accident. And in future, in order that no such mistake should be made, we had the functure. I remember in 1894 we had a very bad winter and the water pipes all broke and the water supply failed, and I used to have to go down to the quadrangle and collect snow in a big—what we called a topan boiler—and I had to melt it down for the prefects to wash in. There was one other good rule; we were not allowed, when we were called Junior, to think. What that meant was this: if you did something wrong and the prefect asked you why you had done it, you were not allowed to say I thought—that is, to make an excuse in that form. You were never allowed to say I thought, and I think that was not a bad rule (Laughter).

That is what I should call the first stage of one's career; you begin, so to speak, as a small slave in your first year, and your duties gradually lighten. You were liable at any time, for at least two years, to be sent off on errands by prefects; many pounds of biscuits have I brought up from the school shop. And you had to do that sort of thing. Then in your fourth or fifth year you generally became a prefect. There were eighteen of them in College, where I lived, eighteen out of seventy boys. And then of course one could order the other people about. At any time you just had to call "Junior," and any junior within call had to come, and the person who came last had to do what was required. And you had a special person assigned to you, called a valet, a small boy who carried your things up to your dormitory; and in the dormitory, while everyone else went to bed at a proper hour, you were allowed to sit up as late as you liked. The favorite drink was the very nice drink of cocoa, made with condensed milk, and extremely good it was. I may say I have never been so nearly an autocrat in my life as I was in my last year at a Public School, and I think most prefects would tell you the same. But of course it was not all amusement. You had your responsibilities. The keeping of order was left practically entirely to the prefects; keeping order in preparation time, keeping order in the dormitory, the general keeping of discipline. I think I am right in saying never in my six years at school did I see a Master in our dormitory. The thing was left entirely to the prefects, and it was done very well, in my experience. If you ask how we managed to do it, well it was a sort of prestige, it was an established custom. I think English boys are probably more docile than you are here (Laughter). At any rate it has grown up, it is a sort of tradition. The only instrument you had was what we called a grand ash, an ash plant which had to be small enough to go through a certain rather big ring, and prefects were allowed to wield this to the extent of twelve blows; and it was a very good weapon because if you got a man who had a good eye and could bring it down on the same spot, it really felt like one stream of flame after another, and yet at the end of it, in ten minutes there was nothing left except if you got a looking-glass you could see some weals on your back. But that has been, I am sorry to say, abolished now; I think it was a very good thing.

What was the effect of all this? Let me begin with the drawbacks. People will tell you that the Public School in England was weak on the intellectual side, that it overdid athleticism, and I would not deny that that was sometimes so; and I am cergain that one of the secrets of education is to remember that you cannot train boys only through games. There is a discipline which comes from intellectual work and intellectual interests, which are equally indispensable with the other, and I admit that probably some Public Schools have ignored that; but it is not in the Public School system. At Winchester, where I was, the intellectual life and interest was keen, and I am certain we never suffered in that respect. It it merely a fact that it depends on who happens to be your teacher—but that is not a weakness of the system. Another complaint is that it makes people too much in one mould, that if you put a lot of small boys, or boys from thirteen to eighteen all together you get a sort of dead level of public opinion. You get people talking about herd instinct and conventionality and snobbery, and all that sort of thing. Well, I would not send an eccentric, sensitive boy to an English Public School; I would not send a Shelley or a Swinburne to one; but I am quite sure that Shakespeare or Milton or Wordsworth would have got on very well. You don't want the sensitive, peculiar type of boy; he is a little liable to have a bad time. But in my memory at Winchester, if it was a Conservative school, and the vast majority of boys were Conservative, there was quite a fair sprinkling of Liberals which kept up their end in the Debating Society. I happened to be a Master at Eton during the last year of the war and I remember one boy there who was a relation of a very famous English statesman, I will not mention his name, a Conservative statesman who is well known to everyone here, who in the end of 1918 expressed Bolshevistic opinions and hung a red flag out of his study. He was a boy of fifteen. I do not pretend that those opinions were popular or that he did not get a ragging, but he was not badly ill-treated. He survived with his life (Laughter). I mean much more than that. He was not crushed at all; he was just gently ragged, and I think he was better treated, probably, than he would have been if he had been just south of the border in that famous home of democracy in the States. So that it does show that as a matter of fact eccentrics can survive perfectly well. And of course if I believe in a certain number of rebels in society, I think it is a good thing to make a rebel see that he has got stuff enough in him to stand up for his opinions.

A third complaint is that the Public School encourages and develops that English reserve. A foreign critic described the English boy essentially, when he said, "Each of these Islanders is himself an island." And one knows what that means. I think it is partly in the English character; I think they are naturally more reserved than either Scotch, Irish or Welsh, and perhaps the Public School does develop it. I am inclined to think it does, and I think that it is a drawback. I think it is an advantage to be a little more expansive, perhaps. But of course you have these little boys together; they are shut off from all feminine influences; we, at any rate, never saw a woman, unless we went down to the sick house when we were ill. That does, I think, rather tend to create reserve. People do not, or did not certainly in my time, talk about their homes, and they spent roughly, thirty-nine weeks of the year in that way. I think perhaps you can blame the Public School for that English reserve.

Now let me come to what I think are the good things it does. After all, the English Public School has this testimony, that foreigners send their children there. It is quite common to meet boys from other countries in Europe who have been deliberately sent away from home to an English Public School; and you do not find English boys in the same way going over to a Lycee in France or a Gymnasium in Germany. That is a great unconscious testimonial to what is, and what I think a European would say is the character of the English Public School, that it trains character. What does it do? Well in the first place it makes people stand on their own legs. It appals me, sometimes, to think of a little boy of twelve going into that sort of society, everyone older than himself, away from his home, and no women around. Well it does teach people on the whole to stand up for themselves; and I think we want that more in England than you do. Here there is naturally a sort of pioneer spirit, in a country which is still being made, and then of course with your great spaces and open life, camping and that sort of thing, you have advantages in developing character which we really have not got. And I think the Public School is more essential to us probably than it would be over here. That is one thing, it teaches people to stand on their own legs, and to face loneliness and uncongenial surroundings.

And then I think you learn or begin to learn two very necessary lessons in life, which correspond to the two stages of which I spoke. In your early stage at a Public School you learn to obey, to do things because you are told to do them by someone who has the authority to tell you to do them, very often when you think them unreasonable and unpleasant. I do not think that is a bad lesson. The second and perhaps more important is in your last years as a prefect you learn to command, and really the essence of commanding is not being able to fag and send them off to do your work, but to take certain responsibilities. Arnold's principle was this: he did not do things for his boys, he did not look very closely after them, he expected them to do things for themselves, to look after the discipline and the good tone and the order of the school by themselves. And that is a big responsibility to take. And it is in a way the essence of command, the feeling that you have got the privileges, but the duties go with them. I do not say there has never been bullying in a Public School. If you want to read an account of horror, read some of the stories of Eton in the eighteenth century; but I never, in the whole of my time, saw an instance of bullying of any kind, and if it had occurred the prefects would soon have put a stop to it. It is a curious sort of inversion. You would expect prefects to be entirely waited on by their juniors, but one of the rituals at Winchester was at each tea, which was at a quarter past six, a prefect always went and toasted for all the boys, the juniors, in his dormitory. They were not allowed to toast but he used to go and toast for them. Well, that is, in a way I think, is the main thing which the Public School taught a good many boys to do, and I think it is one of the reasons why India, for instance, is such a monument of the British Empire as a whole. The work of the Indian Civil Service in India is, I think, one of the great governing traditions of the world.

The third thing I think the Public School did was that it got over that great problem which has faced all political thinkers from Plato downwards, the problem of getting rid of the individual consciousness and making people think more of their community than of themselves. In a Public School you were essentially a member of a small society. From the atmosphere of the place and a sort of semi-compulsion, you felt yourself almost more a member of society than you felt yourself an individual. That seems to me to be a valuable lesson, too. You get a training in this microcosm, the Public School, for that big macrocosm, the world. You get it put into you that through life you are a member of society, which is at bottom more important than yourself. You see that in England; you saw it in 1914 of course. All classes of the community did splendidly, but I do not think there was any class in which there was so much practical unanimity in the way in which people ran to arms as in the Public School class. Those boys, wherever they were on August fourth, went off at once and joined up, and that, I think, was helped by the Public School system. Of course I do not mean to say that the Public School had a monopoly on patriotism; it obviously would not be true; but I think that had been rammed into them. And where I do think you see it much more is in that very large amount of public service which one gets in England from a rather idle class. Here, of course, I think it is a tradition to people to work, but after all until the last ten years there has been in England a big class, the country squires, who really might just have sat still and hunted, and done nothing else. And some of them have been like that, but most of them have done an immense amount of public work, in parliament, in numerous activities, and above all in the ordinary work of country administration. They form the unpaid magistrates, they form the unpaid members of county councils, people who give up their own time, away from their own amusements and their work and business. That is a great example of public spirit, and I think the Public School has something to its credit there. I do not of course wish to seem to imply that a Public School is a perfect place, and that every good thing in England is due to it; that is not so; but I think it does express much of the best parts of the genius of the British people, and I think it has done a great deal to strengthen and develop that genius (Applause).

The thanks of the Club were tendered to the speaker by REV. DR. SCLATER.

THE WEST AND CANADA'S PROBLEM

BY

THE HONOURABLE J. G. GARDINER, B.A., LL.D.,

PRIME MINISTER OF SASKATCHEWAN

(*Links of Empire Series*)

27th October, 1927.

PRESIDENT ALEXANDER FRASER introduced MR. GARDINER, who spoke as follows:—I need hardly say that it is a great pleasure to me for the first time to have the opportunity to speak to so many of Toronto's business men, partly because of the importance of the City of Toronto itself in the Dominion of Canada, and partly because of the fact that it is the capital city of my native province (Applause). The gathering with which I am confronted today expect me to deal with facts, expect me to treat of the subject, "The West and Canada's Problem" in a spirit that is befitting an Empire Club, and I hope that I shall meet your wishes in that regard.

The problem which is confronting the Dominion of Canada today not only in the West, not only in what is generally called the East, but in all parts of the Dominion of Canada, is the problem as to how we can best, within the British Empire, build up on the northern half of this North American continent a nation (Hear, hear, and applause). It is not my intention to follow in the beaten paths in this discussion of that subject, but to try so far as I possibly can, to give you some idea of what the view of Western Canada is, or is coming to be, upon that great problem and in connection with its development. We in Western Canada have been known from the opening of the West as an agricultural people. We are an agricultural people. We are proud of that fact, and we at all times emphasize the importance of agriculture within the Dominion of Canada. Yet I hope that the time will never be when we look upon agriculture as being important to the exclusion of any other great industry in the Dominion of Canada (Applause). We at this time would call to your attention the fact that Canada stands fifth among the nations of the world in the matter of international trade; and the further fact that we stand first among the nations of the world in the matter of international trade, so far as it affects the export of wheat. We are the greatest wheat-exporting country in the world today (Applause). I might say to you that with a population of less than a million people in the Province of Saskatchewan, we are producing more wheat than all the other provinces of the Dominion of Canada put together, and that the Province of Alberta, another of the western provinces, is producing the greater part of what remains. I might state this further, that with less than a million people, we are producing for export more wheat than the whole of the United States to the south of us (Applause). In addition to that, I might call to your mind the fact that you have in the Province of Ontario one of the richest gold mines in the world, that we have within the Dominion of Canada, the richest asbestos and nickel mines that are to found in the world, that we have in the Dominion of Canada the greatest pulp-wood resources to be found in any country in the world; and that all this exists under a form of government patterned after that of England itself, where freedom and justice are shared to a greater extent than under any other form of government (Applause). This is just another way, and perhaps a roundabout way of declaring to this audience that we in the Dominion of Canada are the most sparsely settled of any country in the world in proportion to the natural resources which we have. That, it seems to me, is the great fact that confronts us when we are quoting statistics with regard to the Dominion of Canada, when we are comparing ourselves with other nations, when we are comparing ourselves with other parts of this continent, that the Dominion of Canada stands today as the most sparsely settled country that is to be found in the world under a settled form of government. Well now, in that fact it seems to me is to be found the problem which is confronting the people of the Dominion of Canada in building a nation on the northern part of this continent.

We might look back over the experience of the last century, so far as this continent is concerned. We might compare the development of this country with the great republic to the south, and in order to emphasize the point of view which would be before our minds if we were to do that, I might recall the words of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, then Prime Minister of Canada, more than a quarter of a century ago, when he said that the nineteenth century was the century of the United States, but that the twentieth century belongs to the Dominion of Canada (Applause). Well if we were going to attempt to prove that we have at least made a start upon bringing about this century as the century of Canada, we might refer to the development in matters of population. In 1800 the United States had a population of 5,300,000 people. In 1900 the Dominion of Canada had a population of 5,300,000 people. In 1810 the United States had a population of 7,200,000 people. In 1910 the Dominion of Canada had a population of 7,300,000 people. In 1820 the United States had a population of 9,600,000. And in spite of the fact that between 1910 and 1920 this country was shaken by the results of one of the most devastating wars of all time, the Dominion of Canada in 1920 had a population of 8,800,000 people. And today in the year 1927, with three years yet to run, we have a population approaching 10,000,000 people, and in 1830 the United States had 12,000,000 and a little more, in that great country to the south. What is the problem that is before us, if we are going to make of the Dominion of Canada a country in this century of as great importance, as far as population is concerned alone, as the United States. Well, gentlemen, about 1850, through the development of the great agricultural areas of the United States, they had produced a population of 23 million. Is it impossible that the Dominion of Canada should have a population of 23 million of people by 1950? I say no. The Dominion of Canada can bring that about in the 23 years that are yet to pass between now and the year 1950. But I believe that it is important that we in the Dominion of Canada, who are confronted with such a problem, should take some account of what did take place in the United States in the years between 1800 and 1850. And in order to lay the foundation for the development of that ideal let me say this, that in the United States of America, you have the greatest agricultural area that is to be found anywhere in the world under a settled form of Government. You have the Atlantic slope, you have that great part of the central plain between the Appalachians and the Rockies between the 49th parallel and the Great Lakes on the north and Mexico, and let me repeat, this is the greatest agricultural area to be found anywhere in the world under a settled form of government. And it was through the development of that great agricultural area that 23 million people were brought to the United States, or were born in the United States, in order to take advantage of the great resources which that rich area gave. Well after 1850 there took place in the United States the most marvelous industrial development that has ever taken place in any country in a similar length of time. That development was built up largely, I believe, upon the exploration of the mineral wealth of the great Appalachian Highlands that runs to the south of this great city in which we are meeting. And as a result of that mineral growth together with the further development of the agricultural areas of the United States, by the end of the last century they had increased the population of the United States fourfold, making it to approach a hundred million, rather than 23 million as it was at the middle of the century. Well now, in connection with that it seems to me that we can develop certain ideas that may have something to do with the building up of the nation on the northern half of this continent. One of the great events of the last century, so far as the Dominion of Canada was concerned, was the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway at a time when we had not the information which we have today. When men ask me, as a Minister of the Crown in my own Province, to prove some of the undertakings which we have in mind when we are starting out upon them, I refer to the undertaking, the building of the C.P.R. at a time when there was scarcely a white man between the Great Lakes and the Rocky Mountains, at a time when we were told that the building of the railway there would not pay for the axle grease upon the wheels of the trains run across it. And what have we today? We have the opening up of one of the greatest wealth-producing areas of the Dominion of Canada, in that section of country which lies west of the Great Lakes. And in order to give you some further idea of what the building of the C.P.R. meant to the Dominion of Canada, let me refer to this, that it started on the eastern coast, that it connected the City of Montreal with that eastern coast, but ran part of its way through the State of Maine, that it crossed the Province of Ontario towards the centre of it, that it crossed what has been known as the great barren area of the western portion of your province, hugging Lake Superior, that it goes across the prairie country within a very few miles, as we see it today of the boundary line of the United States; skirting the southern boundary of the whole Dominion of Canada from one end to the other, with the exception of that part where Ontario lies like a great spearhead pointing into the centre of the United States, in this section where we are meeting now. All other parts of the Dominion of Canada served by the railway form a ribbon of settlement along the boundary of the United States. And all eyes, in all parts of that settlement, have been attracted, of necessity, to the great country to the south. Let me digress here for a moment to point out to the people of the City of Toronto what I believe to be one of the greatest drawing cards today for young men to go to the United States. I read the editorials in our press, I read the articles in our periodicals; I note that of thirty-one thousand University graduates from eight leading Universities of Canada, some four thousand are in the United States, and I believe that is one thing of which we should be proud, that 27,000 out of 31,000 graduates of the Universities of Canada are still within the Dominion of Canada (Applause). There is still another fact that is confronting us as we pick up our newspapers. I see newspaper after newspaper which makes the very strongest appeal to young men to go to the United States that can possibly be made; in this fact that we are reporting whole front pages of the sports of the United States, and sometimes neglecting our own (Hear, hear). What is it that appeals to the mind of the young man, what is it that appeals to the man who is twenty? Is it not the possibility of being able to measure his strength, his physical strength on the athletic field against some other young man, and if he has got to go to the great cities of the United States in order to play hockey, in order to play baseball, in order to play football, in order to have himself appear on the front pages of our paper, and earn the hurrah of his community, what greater drawing card could there be to take a young man to the United States than that? We may write editorials, we may make speeches on the necessity of keeping our young men in Canada, but so long as we carry on that kind of thing, I believe a great many of our young men will go south.

Then let me say this, that in 1904, four years after the beginning of this century, there was marked out the second great transcontinental railway across Canada. It did not skirt the American boundary; it ran back a little further into the Dominion of Canada; it ran in a direct line from the City of Quebec to the City of Winnipeg, and in a direct line from the City of Winnipeg up to the Yellowhead Pass, and in a direct line from the Yellowhead Pass to the Pacific Ocean at Prince Rupert; giving greater breadth to the Dominion, opening up great prairies, but in addition opening up the great hinter land of Quebec and Ontario. In addition your government in the Province of Ontario connected this great city with the hinterland of this province, by building a government railway stretching up into that hinterland. What has been the result? Last session I sat in the House of Commons at Ottawa and heard a member from one of the constituencies in the northern part of your province make the statement that he represented the wealthiest constituency in the Dominion of Canada, and I did not hear anyone contradict him. Then I heard another gentleman who came from the City of Toronto speaking in the City of Regina make this statement; he said the Cobalt district has made the cities of Montreal and Toronto lazy with wealth (Laughter). Well now, those two statements emphasize something which is running through the minds of the people of the Dominion of Canada today. We have in that hinterland, which was opened up by the building of a second transcontinental railway, a district which has made possible, according to the representations of the press during the last few days the greatest business transaction in connection with the natural resources of Canada that has taken place since Confederation. That, it seems to me, is a fact that should be borne in on the minds of all of us. There are possibilities in some of the unexplored areas of Canada that are yet undreamed of by the older men of Canada, and alike by the young men to whom we are appealing to remain within the bounds of the Dominion of Canada.

Then I might call your attention to the importance of broadening out that area in western Canada by referring you to this fact, that in the year 1905, when the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan were formed, that we were producing thirty million bushels of wheat. In the year 1923 we produced in those two provinces alone 415 million bushels of wheat (Applause). That represents some of the development which took place as a result of the broadening of the basis upon which settlement is being placed in the Dominion of Canada, and it represents as well a great problem which has been confronting the people of the west,and which has to do materially with the creating of the proper spirit on which to build a nation on the northern part of this continent.

With the 415 million bushels of wheat, and only the one old trade route over which wheat was carried to any great extent towards the ports from which it was to be shipped across the ocean to the markets of the world, the wheat of the farmers of western Canada was backed right up into the farmers' granaries. A new route was found by way of Vancouver which took care of 50 million bushels, shipping it by way of the Panama Canal, and so across the ocean to the Old Country. That route is becoming somewhat important in the development of trade in the Dominion of Canada, and it is of just as great importance to the people of the City of Toronto, to the people of the City of Montreal, to the people of the Maritime Provinces, as it is to the people of Western Canada or to the people of British Columbia, if we are all engaged in the one great work, and that the building of a well-balanced Dominion of Canada (Applause). The importance of that western route might be estimated if I were to describe to you that part of the Great Central Plain which lies within the Dominion of Canada. It stretches like a great triangle, an obtuse-angle triangle, if you will, with the obtuse angle at the point where the Rocky Mountains cross the American border; the American boundary forming one side of the angle, running down to about where Fort William is, and the other side of the triangle running along the top of the Rocky Mountains, with the connecting line stretching from away up in the Peace River Country right down to Fort William. In that triangle you will find all the wheat which is coming east directed down to the narrow point which has its position at the City of Fort William. But if you were to draw a line across Western Canada at about where Swift Current is, that is a considerable distance into the Province of Saskatchewan from the Alberta boundary, directly northwards, you would have pretty nearly the dividing line as between where wheat can be shipped west and where it can be shipped east under the present freight rates which exist. And when you compare those two great areas you will find this, that the whole Peace River Country is to be found in the western part of that district, and almost directly north of the City of Vancouver, a little to the east and north of the Port of Prince Rupert. This should bring to mind the fact that in the future those great ports on the Pacific coast will be among the most important centres of the Dominion of Canada. It cannot be otherwise, and why should we wish it otherwise? No man in the City of Toronto, no man in the City of Montreal, no man in the whole Province of Ontario, or the Province of Quebec, or the whole Prairie Provinces, desires anything else but prosperity for the Pacific coast (Applause).

But here is another problem we have in another area lying between the Saskatchewan River and the Churchill River, another great section of Western Canada which is at present hardly touched. A few settlers are in there; I have gone up 120 miles north of the City of Battleford and addressed a meeting where fifteen hundred men and women were gathered together, at that time 90 miles from the railway, at Meadow Lake, many of them homesteaders, all of them ranchers, all bent upon enlarging the area over which Canada can be spread in order to build that nation of which we are speaking. But in that great section of country there is scarcely a railway today, there is scarcely any development, and might I point this out to you that one of the ideas which Western people have in mind today in connection with the opening up of a fourth route whereby our grain may be shipped to the markets of the world has to do with the great unexplored and undeveloped area between the Saskatchewan River and the Churchill River. When I recall once more the remark I made a few moments ago, that in the year 1923, with our 415 million bushels of wheat in two provinces of Western Canada, the wheat of our farmers with our present routes was backed right up into the granaries of the farmers, you can see the importance of having for the future every route that is possible open, in order to make it possible for that wheat to be got out. I am very pleased to know that this has ceased to be a political issue, that it is no longer a matter of contention, that all men in the Dominion of Canada who are interested in the future development of Canada, realize that the building of the Hudson Bay Railway will have the effect of still further broadening the basis of settlement on which Canada is based in building the country. There is this further fact, in connection with which we have been asked at certain times to prove the feasibility of the road. Allow me to refer you once more to the thought that we did not prove the feasibility of the C.P.R. before we built it. Let me refer you to the thought, if we are thinking of Old England, that Hengist and Horsa were not called upon to prove the feasibility of building the Anglo-Saxon race when they walked into England and took their part in developing and building what we are proud to call the British Empire. The Empire was built because of the spirit of the men who have inhabited that little island. And the Dominion of Canada is going to be built because of the spirit of the men and women who inhabit the Dominion of Canada (Applause). I believe that while there may be great difficulties, difficulties on land, difficulties on the sea, difficulties in the Straits, difficulties in the Bay, in connection with the development of the Hudson route, yet I believe that the descendants of men like Hawkins, men like Drake, men like Frobisher will find a way of overcoming those difficulties and will make that route an established fact as one of the most important arteries of the British Empire (Applause). That will be the fourth outlet, and I believe we need them all.

But I do not wish to leave the impression this noon-hour with this gathering that the Dominion of Canada as a nation is going to be built entirely upon the material wealth of the country in which we live. Nor is it going to be built only by the building of great railways from one end of our country to the other, important as those railways may be. It is going to be built if we realize not only the achievements of the past, and the achievements of the immediate future, but if we realize at the same time something of a vision of what Canada may become in the future. When I speak of that agricultural area which has placed in the Dominion of Canada, whether it be down in the Maritimes, in the southern part of Quebec, in the southern part of Ontario, in the great prairie section, or out in the valleys and down along the slopes to the Pacific in the Province of British Columbia, that has placed something approaching ten million people in the Dominion of Canada, I say this in addition, that I believe we have reached the point where we have to give still further and further attention to that great shield which reaches about the Hudson Bay, running through the northern part of your province, into the Province of Quebec, on across the Province of Manitoba, across the northern part of the Province of Saskatchewan, and which I believe has within it wealth as great and greater than that which was found within the Appalachian Highlands to the south, that made possible the great development in the United States. We in the Dominion of Canada have been accustomed as young men to leave the old homestead down in the Province of Ontario or Quebec or the Maritime Provinces, to wend our way by rail out across what we have been pleased to call the great barren waste of northern Ontario and find ourselves out on the western plains. Because of the tension existing between the East and the West, there has been stirred in the minds of many, not those who have been born in Canada, not those necessarily who have been born outside the British Empire, but in the minds of some there has been stirred the question as to whether or not Canada would benefit for all time to come by keeping up that unity of relationship which exists under Confederation, as between these two great sections of Canada. But I am proud to say that today that has vanished from the mind of every public man that can be found in the western part of the Dominion of Canada (Applause). And why has that vanished? It has vanished because we are beginning to realize that the development of the northern part of the Province of Ontario is a development which is going to make better freight rates possible, is a development which is going to make better prices for our wheat possible, is a development which is going to make better markets possible; is a development which is going to place the very heart into Canada at the point where the heart should be. And believing that we would say this, that all we ask of the people of other parts of Canada is to realize with us that we have similar assets in the form of resources in the northern parts of our own provinces. We ask for the expenditure of the capital of the capitalist, and we ask in addition to that for the coming of young men, strong men, men of ambition, in order to fill up the frontiers of this country. To whom is the call of Canada today? Is it to any one race? Is it to any one people? Is it to the people who are living under the flag of any one nation? Those sparsely settled areas of the Dominion of Canada today, offering homes, offering possibilities for the future, are calling to every young man who has ambition to go out into the frontiers and build a home (Applause).

And let me say this, that we in the Dominion of Canada are sometimes inclined to forget that we are attempting to build a nation, so to speak backwards. Did you ever stop to consider how the great nations of Europe have been built? Did you ever stop to consider how the great nations of all time have been built? Boundary lines were not drawn around a certain area and then it was said to the people within that area, you must talk a certain language; within that area you must have certain customs; within that area you must be bound by certain traditions. No; go back to the very beginnings of history, and back to the time of Abraham if you like. What did he do? He walked out from among his people, he went out into an unsettled area, he settled down there and he said to the world, Here shall I dwell with my children, and my children's children, until my seed shall become as numerous as the sands of the sea. And about what did they build the Jewish race? About what did they build Jewish civilization? They built it about the ideals which that one man had when he came out and established himself there. They built about him customs, they built about him a language, they built about him a religion. And when their bands met the bands of other men who were doing similar things, a conflict began, not between languages, but between great ideals for which the nations stood. And the whole history of the race is a history of the advance of those ideals and customs. You can go across to Greece and to Rome, and you will find exactly the same thing. Aeneas, after the great wooden horse had been drawn into Troy, and after his city had been wiped out of existence, fled on and on into the west, until finally he found himself in the Italian peninsula, and there he established himself, and then we are told in the tradition of that country that at a later date some of his posterity, two little boys by some means or other found themselves on the banks of a river, being suckled by a she-wolf, and all the ideas that entered into the mind of a man in connection with a wolf, entered into the minds of the boys, and more or less, of Rome, in connection with their progenitors, and that nation became the most warlike nation of all time, advancing itself into all the known world in the day when she existed. That is the method by which nations have been built, and when the boundary lines extended until they touched the boundaries of other nations, war began, and as a result of war treaties were made and boundaries were fixed, in order to safeguard the customs and literature and ideals of those who lived within those boundaries. But we in the Dominion of Canada speak of something called Anglo-Saxonism. We sometimes speak of an Anglo-Saxon race, which does not exist, never did exist, and never can exist, because if you go back to the beginnings of British history, what are you told? You are told that Hengest and Horsa, with their Jutes, Angles, and Saxons, came over from the continent and established themselves in England, that they drove the Britons back into the mountains of Wales and the mountains of Devon, that they drove the Picts and Scots up into the Highlands of Scotland; and there is not a Scot today, nor a Welshman today, nor a Devonshire man today who owns one drop of Anglo-Saxon blood. In addition to that as we read history we come down through the period and we find that there came to England young men like Canute and Hardicanute, the Norsemen from the north, those men who were inspired by that desire of adventure which took them into all the seas of the world, and made of England the nation which is Mistress of the Seas, and whose colonies can be found in every island and upon every continent today. Those men had ideals and characteristics, and in establishing them in England they drove even the Angles and Saxons and Jutes back into a corner of England, made a treaty with Alfred the Great, and established themselves in control of a great part of it, and the marks of their nationality can be seen today in the characteristics of the peoples of all that part of England which they inhabited. Then, again, William the Conqueror in 1066 came over with his armies from Norman France and he established those ideals which gave dash and bravery in time of war, and chivalry in times of peace, which became the characteristic of the English race. I would like to say to the Mayor of Chicago today, that he cannot burn the Anglo-Saxon race on the shores of Lake Michigan. Canute, Hardicanute, and William the Conqueror took care of the Anglo-Saxon race long ago (Applause). But then there is another thing which is called Anglo-Saxonism and Anglo-Saxonism is to be found in the thrift and industry of the Jutes, Angles and Saxons who established themselves in Great Britain and who passed that thrift and industry on, and who passed on that desire to build homes, to the peoples who came to settle themselves in the British Isles from time to time. Not only was there thrift and industry, but there was that desire for freedom and liberty which is given expression to today in all the institutions of government of every country within the British Empire. That is what is known as Anglo-Saxonism, and let me again tell the Mayor of Chicago that if he were to burn all the books that were ever written in the British Isles, that if he were to burn all the books that were ever written in the United States, that at least a million men in the United States could stand up tomorrow and write back into the literature of the United States everything that is worth while in it today (Applause). Because the institutions of government of Canada, the institutions of government of the United States, the institutions of government of every

English-speaking race, are based upon those ideals which were established, not in a thoroughly Anglo-Saxon race in England, but which were established in the time of Cromwell in England, the most cosmopolitan of any nation to be found in Europe or anywhere else in he world up to that time.

What are we doing in Canada? We are repeating the experiment which was carried on in Britain centuries ago. I have heard men make certain remarks with regard to the population of Western Canada. Let me give you the facts. We in the Province of Saskatchewan live in the most cosmopolitan province in the whole Dominion of Canada, and in that province 75% of our people were born within the British Empire (Applause). That does not mean that 75% of them are of British origin, but 53% of them are of British origin, and I have still sufficient faith in the good old characteristics of the Anglo-Saxon race to believe that 53% of the people can establish firmly for all time institutions of government, literature and a language in the Province of Saskatchewan based upon Anglo-Saxonism if you like (Hear, hear). But let me give you further facts. We have in the Province of Saskatchewan only four great races to any considerable number. We have the Germans who form one eleventh of the population of the Province of Saskatchewan, not in the matter of birth, but in the matter of ancestry. Some of those men were born of parents who were born in the Province of Ontario. One of the members of my own government is a man who would rank among them. His father fought in the Franco-Prussian War on the French side, and settled in the County of Bruce, Ontario. He was born in Bruce and he lives today in the western part of Canada, one of those many of whom I am speaking. But only one eleventh of the whole population is of the ancestry coming from that country, and that is the greatest foreign-speaking population that we have in the Province of Saskatchewan. There are only four races that have more than one in twenty of the population of Saskatchewan; those peoples are the Germans, the Russians, the

Scandinavians, and the French. Going back over the little recital of history I gave you a few moments ago, those are the races, with the exception of the Russian, of which the English race has been built. Do we object to the bringing back within the bounds of Canada some more of that people which gave the thrift and industry to the English speaking people? Do we object to the bringing back within the bounds of Canada more of those people, moved by that adventure and that love of the sea which made England the Mistress of the Seas, and the greatest colonizer of all time? Do we object to the bringing back within the Dominion of Canada of French speaking people, people who have given to the English race that dash and bravery in war and chivalry in times of peace, for which she has been noted? I believe not. We are simply replenishing the old stock that found its birth in the British Islands, and from that stock we intend to build a Canadian race which shall owe its allegiance to the Crown in a country with a similar race, and in doing that I believe we shall have accomplished the task which is before us as a people. But in accomplishing it let me direct your minds to this. We must go back to the beginning of things again in nation building. We must establish that unity which we desire to have from coast to coast, not upon dollars and cents, not upon bank accounts, not upon railroad dividends, but we must establish it by doing what we have been doing ever since Canada was Canada, teaching our boys and girls the beauty of the traditions of the race to which we belong; beginning back in England, giving them the stories of Boadicea, the stories of Canute, the stories of Alfred the Great, the stories of William the Conqueror, the stories of Cromwell and his Ironsides; coming into the Dominion of Canada and not forgetting at any time those French missionaries who came over with the fur-traders, established themselves on the banks of the St. Lawrence, passed out into the wilds of the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec to the Indian tribes in order to teach them that Christian civilization in which those men believed. There was no hate in the minds of those men; there was no religious prejudice, there was no prejudice against language or color. These men were inspired by the broad principles upon which nationality must be established in this country. Then again in addition to that let us remember those thrilling stories such as the episode of Dulac as he went up from the City of Montreal to encounter the great Iroquois tribes that were coming down to wipe out the little colony that was forming at Montreal. And what did he do? He and his noble men sacrificed their lives, but in doing so every man of them established a little colony for all time as the basis upon which Canadianism is to be built. That is one of the stories. Another is the story of the heroine of Vercheres, who as a young girl defended the fort against the assaults of the Indians until her father returned to take possession and defend it further in order that the men and women and children might live. The one governing principle in the building of Canada today is the life of its childhood and the life of its manhood, and it has been inspired by the telling of these stories, not by any desire to keep any one race in possession of the Dominion of Canada. Those stories inspire the boy from Russia, they inspire the boy from Germany, they inspire the boy from France, they inspire the boy from the Scandinavian countries, and they make of those boys willing citizens under the freest institutions of government that can be found anywhere in the world, institutions patterned after those of Great Britain, institutions established, not out of the mind of any one individual evolving a system of government, but institutions established through the influence of a nation in building for more than fifteen hundred years (Long applause).

A vote of thanks to the speaker was moved by Mr. J. A. McLeod.

SAMUEL PEPYS AND HIS TIME

By THE VERY REV. F. H. COSGRAVE, M.A., D.C.L.,
PROVOST OF TRINITY COLLEGE, TORONTO

(*Links of Empire Series*)

3rd November, 1927.

The Provost was introduced by COLONEL FRASER, and spoke as follows:—Mr. President, I am going to follow your example and speak today of our hero as Mr. "Peeps" not "Mr. Peppis" or Mr. "Pepps." A short time ago I was speaking elsewhere on this subject, and a friend placed in my hands these lines:

There are people I'm told, of some there are heaps,
Who speak of the talkative Samuel as" Pepps;
And some so precise and pedantic their step is,
Who call the delightful old diarist "Peppis";
But those I think right, and I shall follow their steps
Ever mention the garrulous gossip as "Peeps."

Later on, I heard that the late Mr. Wheatley, the editor of the standard edition of Pepys' Diary was of opinion that his name was really "Papes." I should have supposed that that was the way it was pronounced in Ireland (Laughter). That has suggested the addition of this couplet:

Yet Wheatley declares that the truth still escapes,
For Pepys was not "Pepps" nor "Peeps"; he was "Papes." (Applause).

Now I should think from the large audience here today that some of you have come partly out of curiosity. I am reminded of the story of a gentleman of my profession or cloth who had occasion to mend his fence, and to use a hammer and some nails; and a small boy came and stood by and watched him. It was rather irritating, and at last he said to the small boy, "What are you looking at?" "Well," he said, "I am just waiting to see what a parson says when he bashes his finger." (Laughter). I should think many of you have come here today to see what a parson has got to say about that old philanderer and gossip, Samuel Pepys? Well, I have something to say about him apart from his philandering and his gossiping. In the first place, I think he and his time are worthy of your attention because that was a very great time, and he was a very great man. He lived his three score years and ten from 1633 to 1703. Just think of all that happened in those seventy years. He was a boy at school at St. Paul's School in London, the very centre of things, during the Civil War. He witnessed with his own eyes the execution of King Charles I on that fatal day the 30th of January 1649. Many of you will remember that years afterwards, after the Restoration, when he held office under the Crown—he was quite a royalist—he met in company one night an old school fellow, a Mr. Christmas who had been at St. Paul's School with him, and this Mr. Christmas indulged in most inconvenient reminiscences. He recalled that Samuel had been a Roundhead and a rebel at school, and Samuel Pepys was in agony lest this Mr. Christmas should happen to remember that on the day that King Charles was executed at Whitehall, close by their school, he, Samuel Pepys, had said among the other boys, that if he had to preach a sermon on the event he would take as his text "The memory of the wicked shall rot." (Laughter). Fortunately this Mr. Christmas did not remember the incident; it turned out afterwards that he had left the school before that fatal day.

Then from St. Paul's School Mr. Pepys went to Magdalen College, Cambridge, and while he was a student at Cambridge, Oliver Cromwell reached the height of his power. It was the time of the Commonwealth, a very great time in England. We do not know very much about Mr. Pepys as a College student. Unfortunately the only reference to him on the books of Magdalen College Cambridge, is this one in the Registrar's book: "Oct. 21, 1653, Memorandum that Pepys and Hind were solemnly admonished by myself and Mr. Hall for having been scandalously overserved with drink the night before. This was done in the presence of all the fellows then resident in Mr. Hall's chamber. St. John Wood, Registrar" (Laughter). Mr. Pepys left Cambridge and became a clerk in the Exchequer in London, and later on he had the good fortune, through the influence of his cousin, Sir Edward Montague, afterwards Earl of Sandwich, to sail on the fleet that brought King Charles II back to England. He witnessed the king's landing at Dover, and gives us a very wonderful account of it in his diary. Then you remember, of course, that he was an eye-witness of the Plague, and of the Great Fire which destroyed London in 1666. He was intimately associated with the conduct of the war with the Dutch from 1664 to 1667. He saw the Dutch fleet in the Medway, and later on he became Secretary to the Admiralty, the highest position he could occupy in connection with the British Navy.

From the Restoration in 1660 to the Revolution in 1688 Mr. Pepys was at the centre of the political life of England. Those of you who think of him chiefly as a philanderer and a gossip may be interested to know—and this is my justification for speaking of him today—that Mr. Pepys was probably, very probably, the best man of business of his time. Not only so, but he was one of the creators of the great tradition that we associate with the British Navy. No man in the whole course of British history, I believe, did more to promote efficiency in the British Navy than did Mr. Samuel Pepys (Applause). He was Clerk of the Acts that is a sort of Undersecretary for the Navy, from the year 1660 to 1673; and then he was Secretary to the Admiralty. With one interruption, he was Secretary to the Admiralty from 1673 to the time of the Revolution in 1688.

Another man besides Mr. Pepys kept a most interesting diary of that period, Mr. John Evelyn. He was a friend of Mr. Pepys, and often refers to him in his diary, and I want to read you the extract from the diary of Mr. John Evelyn written on the 26th of May 1703, and you will see how his admirers regarded him. "This day died Mr. Sam Pepys, a very worthy, industrious, and curious person, none in England exceeding him in knowledge of the Navy, in which he had passed through all the most considerable offices, Clerk of the Acts, and Secretary of the Admiralty, all which he performed with great integrity. When King James II went out of England he laid down his office and would serve no more, but withdrawing himself from all public affairs he lived at Clapham with his partner Mr. Hewer, formerly his clerk, in a very noble house where he enjoyed the fruit of his labors in great prosperity. He was universally beloved, hospitable, generous, learned in many things, skilled in music, a very great cherisher of learned men of whom he had the conversation. His library and collection of other curiosities were of the most considerable, models of ships especially. Besides what he published of an account of the navy as he found and left it, he had other divers things under his hand, the history of the navy and how far advanced; and what will follow is left, I suppose, to his sister's son, Mr. Jackson. Mr Jackson sent me complete mourning, desiring me to be one to hold up the pall at his magnificent obsequies, but my indisposition hindered me from doing him this last office." That is the account of Mr. John Evelyn, a very noble and distinguished man. Here is another contemporary opinion of Mr. Pepys: "Pepys was without exception the greatest and most useful minister that ever filled the same situations in England, the Acts and Registers of the Admiralty proving this beyond contradiction. The trade rules and establishments at present in use in these offices are well known to have been of his introducing, and most of the officers serving therein since the Restoration are of his bringing up. He was a most studious promoter and strenuous insister on order and discipline. Sobriety, diligence, capacity, loyalty, and subjection to command, were essentials required of any whom he advanced. Where any of these were found wanting, no interest or authority was capable of making him in favor of the highest pretender. Discharging his duty to his prince he feared no one and he courted no one." I think you will agree with me when we look at Pepys through the eyes of his contemporaries we see a very great public servant. We see a most learned man, President of the Royal Society for the Advancement of Science, and one of the most distinguished of the citizens of England in his time.

Now we are to look at him through his own eyes, and we are to speak of this most extraordinary document, his diary. It appears that from the first of January 1660, to the 31st of May 1669, Mr. Pepys was in the habit of writing up his diary every night before retiring to bed; writing it up in a cipher so that his wife and other members of the household might not read it (Laughter). The great problem with which the student of Mr. Pepy's diary is faced is the problem as to whether Mr. Pepys intended anyone else ever to read the diary. I myself believe most strongly that Mr. Pepys wrote his diary intending to destroy it before his death, and without any intention whatsoever of allowing anyone at any time, to peruse it. Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson, I believe, held the contrary view, and he said that because the diary was not destroyed before Mr. Pepys' death, that therefore Mr. Pepys did intend that it should be read by posterity. But after all, Mr. President, does it not often happen that men leave behind them things that they would have destroyed if they had had their way and had had the opportunity? I am reminded of that old parody of well-known lines:

Lives of great men all remind us
As the pages all we turn
That we're apt to leave behind us
Letters which we ought to burn (Laughter)

I feel sure, therefore, that Mr. Pepys wrote the diary for himself and for nobody else. There late at night he would put down exactly what had happened, and exactly what he thought about other persons and their conduct, and himself and his own conduct, with perfect unreserve. And so there is a book to which may properly be applied, more than to any other book in any literature, the adjective 'unique.' There is nothing like it in English literature, and I believe, nothing analagous to it in any other literature whatsoever. He kept this diary until 31st May, 1669, and he was then forced to abandon his practice by failing eyesight. I think the closing passage in the diary is one of the most pathetic in literature. These were the last words he wrote in this strange diary: "And thus ends all that I doubt I shall ever be able to do with my own eyes in the keeping of my journal, I being not able to do it any longer, having done now so long as to undo my eyes almost every time that I take a pen in my hand; and therefore whatever comes of it I must forbear: and therefore resolve from this time forward to have it kept by my people in longhand, and must be content to set down no more than is fit for them and all the world to know; or, if there be anything I must endeavor to keep a margin in my book open to add, here and there, a note in shorthand with my own hand.

"And so I betake myself to that course which is almost as much as to see myself go into my grave: for which, and all the discomforts that will accompany my being blind, the good God prepare me!"

Those are the last words of the diary. Well, those manuscript books were not destroyed, and at Mr. Pepys' death in 1703 they passed to his heir and nephew John Jackson, and in accordance with Mr. Pepys' will they passed at Mr. Jackon's death in 1724 to the library of Magdalen College, Cambridge, where they are today. For a hundred years those manuscript books lay unnoticed until in 1818 when John Evelyn's diary was published, the head and fellows of Magdalen College, Cambridge thought they ought to do something about these books of Mr. Pepys, and so they made an attempt to have them deciphered. A young undergraduate named Smith labored upon them for some years, and securing the key deciphered them, and they have been given to the world in various editions through the 19th century. That is the story of how the diary was revealed to the world, and an amazing document it is, the strangest possible. Here is a man who gives himself away as no other man has ever given himself away before or since. Here is a man who is better known to us today than any personality of the past. Here is a man into whose inmost thoughts we can see. I think that every moralist, every psychologist, every preacher, every religious teacher, should read Mr. Pepys' diary. It is a wonderful study for them. They can see into the depths of a human soul. Let me give you a few examples of his frankness. You remember that he was Clerk of the Acts and Surveyor of Victuals to the Navy during the Dutch war. You will remember that in his later period he was Secretary to the Admiralty, that is to say he was a person of very great authority in what we would call the Navy Office or Admiralty. The other members of the Naval Board were far less competent than Mr. Pepys. When Mr. Pepys was appointed to the Navy Board, appointed, that is to say, as Clerk of the Acts in 1660, he knew absolutely nothing about the Navy. It was a sheer piece of favoritism through the influence of his cousin Sir Edward Montague. He knew nothing about the Navy and nothing about accounting. He tells us in his diary that he had had to get up at four in the morning day after day in order that he might learn the multiplication table, for he did not know it, so little did he know about accounting. And yet he lived to be, as I said a few minutes ago, the best man of business of his time. He was so competent a few years later that he transacted all the business of the Navy Board, and the others were like sleeping partners. This gave him, by the way, great opportunities for enriching himself in a way that you would not approve, and which I must discountenance in my position as strongly as possible (Laughter). Bear in mind, however, that Mr. Pepys drew a very sharp distinction between taking a bribe before letting a contract, and receiving a gift afterwards from the man to whom he had given the contract (Laughter). He considered himself quite justified in the latter practise, but he would have regarded with great disapproval the former.

"September 10, 1663. Up betimes and to my office, and there sat all the morning making a great contract with Sir W. Warren, for £3,000 worth of masts, but, good God, to see what a man might do were I a knave! The whole business from beginning to end being done by me out of the office, and signed by them"—that is, the other members of the Navy Board—"upon the once reading of it to them, without the least care or consultation for quality, price, number or nature of them, only in general that it was good to have a store. But I hope my pains were such as that the king has the best bargain of masts that has ever been bought these twenty-seven years in this office" (Applause). He seems there to be resisting temptation; but listen to this from the next year, 1664: "Then to the Change again, and thence with Sir. W. Warren and with him discoursed long and had good advice from him; and among other things he did give me a pair of gloves for my wife, wrapped up in paper, which I would not open, feeling it hard, but did tell him that my wife should thank him, and so went on with the discourse. When I came home in what pain I was to get my wife out of the room without bidding her go, that I might see what those gloves were; and by-and-bye, she being gone, it proves a pair of white gloves for her and forty pieces in good gold, which did so cheer my heart that I could eat no victuals almost for dinner for joy to think how God did bless us every day more and more (Laughter)—and more and more I hope He will, upon the increase of my duty and endeavors. I was at a great loss what to do, whether to tell my wife of it or no, which I could hardly forbear, but yet I did, and will think of it first before I do, for fear of making her think me to be in a better condition or in a better way of getting money than I am" (Laughter). Similarly a little later on he says: "Thence going out of Whitehall I met Captain Grove who did give me a letter directed to myself from himself. I discerned money to be in it and took it knowing as I found it to be the proceeds of the place I have got him. But I did not open it till I came home to my office, and there I broke it open and did not look into it until all the money was out, that I might say that I saw no money in the paper if ever I should be questioned (Laughter). There was a piece in gold and four pieces in silver." Similarly on May first of the same year he says: "To my office, whither comes Mr. Bland, and pays me the debt he acknowledged he owed me for my service in his business"—getting his ships employed—"twenty pieces of new gold, a pleasant sight. It cheered my heart; and, he being gone, I home to supper and shewed them my wife; and she, poor wretch, would fain have kept them to look on, without any other design but a simple love to them; but I thought it not convenient, and so took them into my own hand."

In the diary we can see Mr. Pepys growing richer and richer. In 1660 he was worth forty pounds; he was delighted to find himself worth forty pounds. By 1667 or so, he was worth over four thousand pounds. It was not his salary; his salary was only about 350 pounds a year as Clerk of the Acts.

Mr. Pepys was a very strange person, "that queer fellow" I think Sir Walter Scott called him when the diary first came out. He had a habit of making vows which I think very strange. He was somewhat addicted to wine and his conscience troubled him on that score, and he was passionately fond of the theatre. I think he would have enjoyed that excellent play that some of us saw last week. He (Pepys) was passionately fond of the theatre but he regarded it as a great temptation. You see, it led him to neglect his business, and he also spent too much money at the box office, and so he used to take a vow of this kind: Now I will spend so much on the theatre this month and no more, and I won't go to the theatre again after I have spent so much. Well, very soon the allotted amount would be spent, and Mr. Pepys would be trying to get some way out of his oath, without breaking it. One subterfuge was to get a friend of his, and give him the money and then get him to stand him to the theatre (Laughter). Another time he induces a friend of his to treat him to the theatre and he says, "I do not think that is any breach of my vow, and

I hope that God Almighty will agree with me (Laughter). It was the same about wine. He would take a vow to drink no wine for a month, or two months, or three months, and then he would suddenly remember burnt wine; that was not included in his oath, and so he would drink that.

There are other aspects of the diary to which I should like to allude briefly. You have in this document one of the most interesting and valuable sources for our knowledge of London and England at that time. The descriptive writing in this diary is marvelous. Take this description of the landing of King Charles at Dover when he returned to England at the Restoration: "The mayor of the town came and gave him his white staff, the badge of his place, which the King he did give him again. The mayor also presented him from the town a very rich Bible, which he took and said it was the thing he loved above all else in the world. A canopy was provided for him to stand under, which he did, and talked a while with John Monk and others, and so it was the stately coach drew up for him, and so away through the town towards Canterbury without making any stay of dinner. The shouting of joy expressed by all is past imagination." Or take this entry, which I read to you because it will illustrate the extraordinary jumble we have in the diary, the extraordinary mixture of important and trivial things October 13, 1660: "I went out to Charing Cross to see Major-General Harrison hanged, drawn, and quartered; which was done there, he looking as cheerful as any man could do in that condition" (Laughter). Major-General Harrison, you remember, was one of the men involved in the execution of King Charles I. "He was presently cut down and his head and heart shown to the people, at which there was great shouts of joy. Thus it was my chance to see the King beheaded at Whitehall, and to see the first blood shed in revenge for the King at Charing Cross. I took Captain Cutten and Mr. Shipley to the Sun Tavern and did give them some oysters. After that I went by water home where I was angry at my wife for her things lying about, and in my passion I kicked the little fan basket which I bought her in Holland, and broke it; which troubled me after I had done it. Was in all the afternoon setting up shelves in my study. At night to bed."

What would perhaps be most interesting to you in this connection in the matter of descriptive writing is the most vivid account which Mr. Samuel Pepys gives us of the Great Fire of London. You will remember that the Plague raged in London for seven years and then this tremendous fire broke out in September of the year 1666. No one has told us more about it or given more careful account of it than Mr. Pepys. Here is his account of the beginning of the fire: "Some of our maids sitting up late last night, to get things ready against our feast today, Jane called us up about three in the morning to tell us of a great fire that was in the city. So I rose and slipped on my night gown and went to her window and thought it to be on the back side of Market Lane, but being unused to such fires as followed, I thought it far enough, and so went to bed again and to sleep. About seven rose again to dress myself and there looked out at the window, and saw the fire not so much as it was, and further off. So to my closet to set things to rights, after yesterday's cleaning. By and by Jane comes and tells me that she hears that about 300 houses have been burned down tonight by the fire we saw, and that it is now burning down all Fish Street, by London Bridge. So I made myself ready presently, and walked to the Tower; and there got up upon one of the high places, Sir J. Robinson's little son going up with me; and there I did see the houses at that end of the bridge all on fire, and an infinite great fire on this and the other side the end of the bridge; which, among other people, did trouble me for poor little Mitchell and our Sarah on the bridge. So down, with my heart full of trouble, to the Lieutenant of the Tower, who tells me that it begun this morning in the king's baker's house in Pudding-Lane, and that it hath burned down St. Magnus's Church and most part of Fish Street already. So I down to the water side and there got a boat, and through bridge, and there saw a lamentable fire. Poor Mitchell's house, as far as the Old Swan, already burned that way, and the fire running further, that in a very little time, it got as far as the Steele-yard, while I was there. Everybody endeavoring to remove their goods, and flinging into the river, or bringing them into lighters that lay off; poor people staying in their houses as long as till the very fire touched them, and then running into boats, or clambering from one pair of stairs, by the waterside, to another. And among other things, the poor pigeons, I perceive, were loth to leave their houses, but hovered about the windows and balconys, till they burned their wings and fell down. Having staid, and in an hour's time seen the fire rage every way; and nobody, to my sight, endeavoring to quench it, but to remove their goods, and leave all to the fire; and having seen it get as far as the Steele-yard, and the wind mighty high, and driving it into the city; and everything, after so long a drought, proving combustible, even the very stones of churches; and among other things, the poor steeple by which pretty Mrs.—— lives, and whereof my old schoolfellow Elborough is parson, take fire in the very top, and there burned till it fell down; I to Whitehall, with a gentleman with me, who desired to go off from the Tower, to see the fire, in my boat; and there up to the King's closet in the Chapel, where people come about me, and I did give them an account dismayed them all, and word was carried in to the King. So I was called for, and did tell the King and Duke of York what I saw; and that unless his Majesty did command houses to be pulled down, nothing could stop the fire They seemed much troubled and the King commanded me to go to my Lord Mayor from him, and command him to spare no houses, but to pull down before the fire every way. The Duke of York bid me tell him, that if he would have any more soldiers, he shall; and so did my Lord Arlington afterwards, as a great secret. Here meeting with Captain Cocke, I in his coach, which he lent me, and Creed with me to Paul's; and there walked along Watling Street, as well as I could, every creature coming away loaded with goods to save, and, here and there, sick people carried away in beds. Extraordinary good goods carried in carts and on backs. At last met my Lord Mayor in Canning Street, like a man spent, with a handkercher about his neck. To the King's message, he cried, like a fainting woman, "Lord! What can I do? I am spent; people will not obey me. I have been pulling down houses; but the fire overtakes us faster than we can do it." That he needed no more soldiers; and that, for himself, he must go and refresh himself, having been up all night. So he left me, and I him, and walked home; seeing people all almost distracted and no manner of means used to quench the fire."

I think you will agree with me that it would be hard to find in any literature a straighter and simpler, and yet more elegant account of a great event (Applause).

Now what I would suggest to those who wish to form a still closer acquaintance than they have at present with the diary, is that they compare it with some of the other great books in our literature. Two others occur to me as worthy of comparison with Mr. Pepys' diary; one is Swift's Journal to Stella, written just fifty years later in the same place, in London, and not intended for any eye but that of Stella and of her companion. That is also a very remarkable document. And then, of course, the stones would cry out if I did not mention Boswell's Life of Johnson written just a little more than a hundred years later. There you have three books all written about London—the lover of London should read them—picturing London at three different periods. I think you will find the human interest of Mr. Pepys' diary greater than either of the other two, great as those books are. Poor Mr. Pepys, quarrelling with his wife, blackening her eye, and then being sorry for it, but especially sorry because other people noticed it (Laughter), getting a present of a piece of venison from his patron, finding it a little high, a little strong and therefore sending it to his mother (Laughter), making his vows, his pathetic vows, against wine and theatres and other things, and then finding some excuse to break them. An extraordinary individual is that Mr. Pepys that is revealed to us in the diary, that Mr. Pepys who was so delightfully presented to us last week at the Royal Alexandra Theatre. An extraordinary person, but I would ask you to remember that this queer fellow who gives himself away so often and so terribly in his diary, was one of the greatest public servants that England ever had, that to him as much as to any other one man that could be mentioned we owe the efficiency of the British Navy (Applause). I will ask you to remember that, you are business men, most of you, he was one of the greatest business men, probably the most efficient business man of his time, and he was so because of his industry, because he arose at four o'clock in the morning in summer time. He could not rise in the winter at that time because of the lack of artificial light, because he was up in the early morning, and because he stayed in his office night after night in order that he might serve his king and his country (Applause).

The President: Gentlemen, it is with exceptional pleasure that we welcome here today, the Right Reverend the Bishop of Ontario, the speaker's predecessor as Provost of Trinity College, and I shall call upon him to voice our appreciation of his successor's most charming address.

BISHOP SEAGER accordingly tendered to the speaker the thanks of the Club, in warm terms.

THE SUPREME APPEAL

AN ADDRESS BY THE RIGHT REV. JOHN TAYLOR SMITH, K.C.B., C.B., C.V.O., D.D. (ENGLAND)

(*Links of Empire Series*)

10th November, 1927

The Speaker was introduced by the President and said: I consider it a very great privilege to be invited to join you at lunch today. These gatherings exercise a much wider influence than I think anyone present realizes. Gatherings where men get to know one another as they cannot under other circumstances, are most valuable assets to our great empire. (Applause). Therefore, good luck to you, carry on as they say in the Senior Service, and when the day comes—it may come, let us hope it may be far distant—when once again heart to heart and man to man and shoulder to shoulder we have to stand up for our flag, you may be the better prepared, and your sons who are following you.

This is not my first visit to Canada. Seventeen years ago I had the privilege of landing at Halifax for the consecration of their new Cathedral. After the special services I made a flying visit to Quebec, Montreal, Ottawa, the Military College at Kingston, and of course I could not leave out the Queen City of Toronto, (Applause), on my way to New York and home again. There is one incident that stands out more than any other in connection with that visit and it was when I went to see the Falls of Niagara, with which you are so familiar. My chauffeur that day was a young American, a fine specimen of physical manhood. He told me he was only twenty one or twenty two years of age, and that he had been driving the car for some seven years. I ventured to ask him the question "Are you a religious man?" "Religious? We haven't time to be religious on this side of the Atlantic." (Laughter). "Don't you get your

Sundays?" "Sundays sir? I haven't had a Sunday for seven years. They drive me mad on a Sunday; I assure you, sir, I am asleep at the wheel. It is the hardest day in the week, Sunday." I got my bearings; no religion, no Sundays, twenty-one years of age, and the most important twenty-one too. For the foundation stones of his future manhood were already laid, the foundation stones of his physical life, his intellectual, and his spiritual. And then I commented on the scenery and the great rushing waters where Webb lost his life, and then I came back again. "This is a good car you are driving me in." "No fault with the car sir; it has carried me thousands of miles, and I never had an accident." "Well," I said, "you have much to thank God for. How many cylinders has it?" "It has six cylinders." "I suppose you have six cylinders so that if one is not sparking you are driving on the other five?" "No sir, I want to know the reason why, if every cylinder is not doing its little bit." Then I said, "You are the most unreasonable fellow I have met for a long time, not to be satisfied with five working out of six." "No, sir, no owner and no hirer of a car would be satisfied unless every cylinder was working." "Well," I said, "I know a car of three cylinders. "What is the name?" I said, "Wait. I know of a car of three cylinders; do you think the maker or the owner is satisfied if it is only sparking on two?" "Certainly not, but what is the name of the maker and of the car?" I said, "The name of the maker is God, and the car is humanity, and you think God is satisfied when we are only sparking on the physical life and the intellectual and not on the moral and spiritual." And he said, "You are getting at me?" And I said, "I am." I am also getting at some of you here today. Oh the folly of human nature trying to make a three-legged stool stand on two legs! You can't do it. You can no more be man unless you develop the whole trinity of your being, than a three-legged stool can be made to stand on two legs.

I was out in Australia, and I went over to Tasmania, two years ago. I was invited to a Rotary Club. The

President in introducing me—I cannot refrain from telling this story and I hope the Bishop will forgive me—told this story: There was a father walking along a country road with his son Freddie. And all at once they saw in the distance a Bishop coming, and the father said to Freddie, "Do you see that person coming towards us, Freddie?" "Yes, father." "He is a bishop." "Indeed," said Freddie. And the father went on to say, "Wouldn't you like to be a bishop, Freddie, when you are grown up?" "No, father, I would rather not." "But why not?" "I would rather be a man like you, father." (Laughter). And that was my introduction that day. (Laughter). So when I got up I said, "Gentlemen in what way do you expect me to address you? As a Highlander in mourning, or as something less than a man?" But it gave me an opportunity which I availed myself of. I pointed out that there was not a man amongst us; we are only fragments of men. "Behold the Man." I told them the story of how I visited Oxford on one occasion and I was surrounded by a number of under-graduates who said to me, "Chaplain General, what makes a man?" I said, "That is a rather hard question; I will tell you what will not make a man; brawn only will not make a man, and brains only will not make a man, and brawn and brains together will not make a man. You have only two-thirds of a man when you have brawn and brains. Yes, the world has only seen one Man, Behold the Man. If you would be men you must contemplate the Jesus of history, you must make Him your hero, your ideal; you must read His life and study His character, and seek to be like Him." And as I said it my conscience smote me; had I not tried in my youth to be like unto Christ and failed? Haven't we all tried and failed? No, I said, the perfection of that character does not inspire me, it depresses me. I cannot attain unto it. The contemplation of the Jesus of history will not make us men. Then I said, "They say you must live with a person to know him," and then I thought of those disciples that walked and talked, and heard those marvelous words of wisdom and truth and life.

I remembered how they saw his miracles, and when it came to the crisis there was not a man among them; they all forsook Him and fled. And so I said to those Oxford undergraduates, "It is not the association in service and sacrament that will make you men, not the contemplation of the Jesus of history in the distance. I will tell you what will make us men; it is the appropriation—"to as many as received Him." Not a system but a person, a character, nothing less than the Son of God. "To as many as received Him, to them gives He the power to become men, to become the sons of God." And so I told those Rotary men that incident that I have just told you.

That was my first link with Canada. I saw little of it, but what I did see I loved, especially the City of Toronto, for I saw for the first time why it is called the Home City—no barriers between your houses, but all sharing your flowers and grass alike. It was the first time I had seen it; it was an indication of the spirit which I have found from experience pervades the city. (Applause).

The second time I visited Canada was last year, and then I had not time to alight from the train from Vancouver to New York, once more by Niagara. It is a wonderful attraction, that Niagara of yours. I wanted to see it under different conditions, I wanted to see it under winter, and so with some temperature below zero I stepped out of the train, and saw your icy Niagara and enjoyed very much the privilege.

And now I am visiting Canada and seeing more of the place and more of the people. I believe if I stayed long enough I would be a Canadian. (Hear, hear, and applause). "Almost thou persuadest me to be a Canadian." (Laughter). For I am charmed with your country, its vastness, its beauty. I have seen it under its most beautiful garb, the coloring of autumn, and as I passed through the Rockies in the sunshine, and back again the other day in the snow, I just realized what a privilege it is for you to live in such a country and breathe such an atmosphere, where, as I have already told my kind host, Dr. O'Meara, with whom I stay, I feel twenty years younger than I was. (Hear, hear, and applause). At ten o'clock this morning I was turning back somersaults in the pool in Hart House. The undergraduates that were sharing the pool at the time looked up: "You are old, Father William." (Laughter).

But when I meet a body of men such as you members of the Empire Club, my mind goes back to the Great War, and I think of the sacred links that we had then when you sent out that great contingent to form the living wall between our enemies and our homes; your sons laid down their lives that the enemy might come so far and no further. That is the time that I can never forget.

I met the first contingent at Salisbury Plains, some thirty-four thousand. I have often remarked to the generals in the British Army that I have never seen such magnificent specimens of men as those Highlanders coming over the hills for their service on Salisbury Plains, and I had the privilege of speaking to them, some seven thousand at nine o'clock, three miles off at ten o'clock, at eleven o'clock, and at twelve o'clock, until I had covered the whole of that first contingent—a sight I can never forget. And that was my introduction to the army that came over from the Dominion, the Dominion which is second to none in love and loyalty to the King and to the flag. (Applause).

From Salisbury Plains to Vimy Ridge. I have stood with your brothers and sons on Vimy Ridge in face of the enemy. And oh, the memories that rise between Salisbury Plains and Vimy Ridge. I was visiting one of your hospitals, not a hundred miles from London. I was asked to take a confirmation, which those of you who are members of the Church of England know, affords an opportunity to confess the Lord Jesus Christ as a personal Saviour, to consecrate the life to His service, and receive the Heavenly Father's power, His Spirit. I had taken the service in the chapel for those who were able to walk or be carried in chairs, then I went up into the wards and laid my hands on and prayed with those who were too broken in body to leave their cots. I was leaving the hospital by a corridor, and there was a long window, and under the window a long form, and on the form there were a number of convalescent men in their blue uniforms and their red ties, with which we are familiar. When they saw me coming—for I was not dressed in black but in khaki—they immediately stood to attention. I said, "Sit down, men," and they sat down. Taking out my watch I said, "I am just going to catch my train, but I do not like to pass you men for the first time, and who can say, it may be the last time, without leaving a seed thought to help you in the days to come, whether they be few or many. And while I was speaking to them, in my heart I was praying to God. I was availing myself of that great privilege which God has given to man of making conversation with Him. If you have not formed the habit, let me commend to everyone not to lose any time, but to begin to form the habit of making conversation with God, as regards your business, as regards your pleasure, in regard to everything, political or domestic or personal. It is the greatest privilege that has helped me through life, the habit of prayer and making conversation with God, and what we cannot ask God to bless, the sooner we throw it the better. Well I was praying in my heart to God, and all at once I saw in the middle of a table, running down the corridor, a white hospital bowl, which the military orderly had turned over. I do not know why, but they have a habit, those soldier orderlies, of turning over white bowls and other bowls in hospital; I suppose to keep the dust out. Well I said, "Men, you see that bowl. This is the thought I would leave with you. Just as the sun cannot shine into an inverted bowl, so the Sun of Righteousness, Jesus Christ, cannot shine into an inverted soul. Have you it? I will say it again that you will never forget it, men. As the sun cannot shine into an inverted bowl, so the Sun of Righteousness, Jesus Christ, cannot shine into an inverted soul. Shall I tell you what is inside that bowl, men? There are three things at least. First of all, there is darkness; then there is emptiness, then there is uselessness. And so it is with every soul that is turned away from God; there is a darkness which sometimes may be felt; there is an emptiness, which you and I have experienced, in the heart of man. And there is a uselessness, for just as man cannot use an inverted bowl, God cannot use an inverted soul." I said, "Men, supposing I take that bowl and I turn it over, and I make it a converted bowl, what a change takes place! Immediately it is filled with light, and the darkness flies away. And then it may be filled with blessing from morning until evening—porridge in the morning, fruit at noon, coffee, cocoa or tea in the evening. In fact its life of usefulness is begun from the moment of its conversion. And men, it is so with the soul of man, when turned to God. The light of Heaven, the light of man, comes in and in His bright presence the darkness flies away. And then come the blessings of peace and pardon through the precious blood. And then comes the joy which the world can neither give nor take away. Then comes the power which He gives to us, His character, the indwelling power, the fulfilling power, the overflowing power. In fact there is no end to the blessings which come when the soul is turned towards God. Have you it, men? As the sun cannot shine into an inverted bowl, so the Sun of Righteousness, Jesus Christ, cannot shine into an inverted soul. Good night." And I went to catch my train.

Oh, I could keep you for a whole day telling you incidents of that great war. Pathos and humor you have blended together. Here is a Tommy, I recognize him and he evidently recognizes me, for there is a smile on his face, and so I come up to him and say, "Well, have we met before?" "Yes sir, six years ago I heard you preach a sermon I have never forgotten." I said, "Yes, indeed?" "Yes, don't you remember telling us about your visit to China and how you went to a military gunners' mess?" I said, "I remember, and you remember that?" "Yes, I remember it; we talked about it for a week." And the incident was this. I was at

Hong Kong taking the regular parade on the Sunday morning; then I was spirited away off to a little gunners' mess for an afternoon parade, and one of the young gunners thought he would just pull my leg, as Chaplain General, so he worked on a piece of brown paper a text which he put up on the mess right opposite where I would be sitting, and of course I saw it, and I didn't see it too. (Laughter). I made no comments. And the text was this: "We are all from the same mould, but some are mouldier than others." (Laughter). So when the time for the sermon came, I said, "You will find my text, not in the Bible, and the text is this: 'We are all from the same mould, but some are mouldier than others'." And then I gave them a sermon on original sin, and the remedy, how to get rid of our sins. And he remembered it. I said, "Why do you remember those bull and cock stories that are illustrating sermons." He said, "Oh, we remember the sermon as well. We talked about it for a week." Oh, the sense of humor that those Tommies have.

I dare say you saw the picture yourself; it was a picture which made a great impression on me. Here is a Tommy that has got hold of an old cart horse with its feathery legs, and there it is, almost tumbling down on to its knees, and he is sticking in the saddle and holding on and saying, "Go on, go on, God bless father and mother, and make me a good horse. Amen." (Laughter.) You must see the picture to really appreciate the joke. Yes, strange and wonderful those brave lads; and they received quick promotion, many of them being excused into immediate service, and are continuing that service for which this life is only the beginning. And cheerful at all times.

Another hospital rises before me. There is a medical officer and the matron, and the sister of the ward taking me around, and here is a jolly fellow with a face like John Bull, the roseate hues of early dawn on his face, and there he is sitting up in bed, and the matron introduces him to me, "This is one of our oldest patients," and he is only nineteen years of age and I wonder how it can be, "and the cheeriest, Chaplain General; he does us all good." There were hundreds of boys in that hospital and the doctors and the sisters were nearly worn to death. "Yes, he is always cheerful, always makes us happy, and he has lost both legs from the upper part of the thighs.' And as I looked into the lad's face I said, "Laddie." I realized what he was musing. I had my limbs and had the joy of boyhood and manhood, but for the rest of his life he was to be without his legs. I said, "Laddie, what is the secret of your happiness? Is it Jesus Christ?" He was taken aback with these sudden words and he said, "I, I think so, I hope so, I am sure it is." He just took the trenches one after another. "I think so, I hope so, I am sure it is." There was not a dry eye. The secret of his happiness was that the soul in his mangled body was in touch with God, and that is the secret of all happiness.

I must not keep you much longer. I will tell you one more story if you will bear with me. A Colonel who led his men bravely and well came to me at Sydney when I visited Australia two years ago, and said, "Chaplain General,"—I was not Chaplain General then, I had retired for age (Laughter). "Can you spare a day, sir? I would like to show you one of the beauty spots of Australia." I said I should be delighted, and the next Saturday I would be free. So he brought a car and members of his family about nine o'clock in the morning, and for about sixty or seventy miles he spirited me across country to a place which may be known to some of you here. He took me up to the top of the precipice and he showed me the finest seascape that ever I have been privileged to behold. There a mile and a half or two miles right beneath us was the Pacific Ocean with its great billows rolling up on the golden sands, and then bay after bay to the right, perfect visibility, not a cloud in the sky, blue sky and blue sea, and he told me the farthest point we saw that day was forty miles away. And away on the left, bays just the same for forty miles. A scene which I can never forget as long as I live. Well, we had our table along the precipice, and we enjoyed the view and the food. A little distance away was another party. We were the only two there that day. A man and his wife and a small child, a boy of seven. The luncheon was finished and the members of his family took the remains into the forest to put into the car, and the Colonel sat on the seat and lighted a big cigar and said, "Will you have a smoke?" And I said, "No thanks, I am not old enough yet to smoke." He said, "Not old enough? When are you going to begin?" I said, "When I am cremated." (Laughter). So I walked up and down and he was smoking and I was telling him some of my past experiences, and how one day I said to a lawyer friend of mine, "Will you define life in as few words as possible?" And he thought for a moment and then he said, "Yes, I think I can; I should define life as the removal of muck." Well, it was a strange expression; the Colonel laughed as I laughed when I first I heard it, but there is a good deal more in it than appears on the surface. When you get up in the morning you wash your face, the removal of muck. You brush your clothes, the removal of muck. You dirty the plates and they have to be removed and washed. Life may be said to consist in the moving of material, which was the jest, the playful way in which he put it. Then we went on with other things and he went off to the car, and I could not tear myself away from this magnificent view. The other party had gone; I was alone. But in a moment the gentleman that I had seen a little way off came back and raising his hat he said, "Excuse me, sir, I could not but overhear the conversation that you had with your friend, and I was amused at your lawyer friend's definition of life, and if I am not impertinent may I ask you your definition of life?" I said, "Well, that is rather a hard question, I will give it to you though in the words of the Master, 'This is life eternal, to know Thee the only true God, and Jesus Christ whom Thou hast sent'." "Oh" he said, "but I am a Jew." I said, "So was He, and I am indebted to the Jews, I am a lover of the Jews; I owe a debt to the Jewish nation I can never repay. They gave me my Old Testament, and New Testament scriptures; they gave me the best friend I ever had. Are you a Pucker Jew ?" "Well, I don't know about that," he said. "Well," I said, let me test you; are you a religious Jew? "Oh, well, I can't say that I am." "Well, if I speak about the Kanuka services, would you understand what I was talking about. He said "No." "Well," I said, "you are not much of a Jew, because if you were you would understand that the Kanuka service is a military service, to which I have been more than once in the Synagogues of London when they give thanks to God for the victories that He gave in the olden days, the time of the Maccabees. If you are not a religious Jew, may I ask what are you?" "Well," he said, "I am a bit of a philosopher." (Laughter). I said "Indeed; how old are you?" "Thirty-seven. I have visited the United States, I have been to Oxford; I am now with my wife on a visit to Australia and New Zealand, and then I am going home by China and India, and I am taking the best out of the various religions." "Well," I said, "thirty-seven years of age more than half your life already gone; at the rate at which you are finding, where will you be at seventy? You mentioned Oxford." So I told him the story I told you of those undergraduates that asked me what makes a man. I said to him, "Let me tell you of another philosopher, and he was a Jew; he came of a good stock; he was born in a city of which he was justly proud, he came of godly parents; he was a university man, he sat under a great professor; but one day there came to him an experience outside the City of Damascus, which completely changed his view of things. He got a new perspective of life, and a time came that he began to weigh the things that mattered, and this was his decision, though he had position and possession—he must have been a wealthy man as well as a learned one, or they would not have tried when he was a prisoner to get him to buy his freedom—he came to a time when he said, "I put by all these things—birth and training, influence, position, possession, all that I had, and I count them as dung, compared with the superior knowledge of Christ Jesus my Lord." Now when I was a boy of fourteen I had the privilege of hearing Professor Ruskin. In an hour and a quarter in the most beautiful English he described one of those little pools or eddies in a mountain stream in the English Lakes District, the flora and fauna as he linkened that little pool to a miniature ocean, and the gems that might be made of the sand at the bottom; and I came out of that lecture and said, "If that old duffer gets so much pleasure out of life, I am going to have a look in. And so, unconsciously, indirectly, he taught me to observe; and now I see without looking, though I am not an Irishman. And as I was having my lunch with the Colonel, with my left eye I saw one of the most beautiful pictures which I shall always associate with that glorious seascape and the picture was of a man who literally carried out by his conduct to his wife and child these words in the marriage service, "with my body I thee worship." His action was love and loyalty, I can never forget the impression it made on me, the way that he served his wife and boy. Every act indicated real love; and having seen that I ventured to say to him "You have come of a good stock?" He said, "Yes, I am thankful to say my father and mother are both living today, and they are both religious Jews." I said "I knew it." I said, "When I was in the army, not long ago, I used to meet men in the various garrisons, members of an officers' mess, fine fellows physically and intellectually, and they turned to me and said, 'I never utter a prayer, Chaplain General, and never read my Bible.' And yet they were most attractive personalities; if I was in a bad corner I would rather have one of those men by my side than a smug Christian, if there is such a thing. And yet it bothered me that these men were not on the side of God and Christ, until I began to make an experiment, and to this I found no exception, that every man was drinking of a stream of which he was not acknowledging the source. Godly mother, godly father, godly forebears, had given him the character that he possessed, and the attractive personality. I found no exception." And so I realized that this man, with this attractive personality had come of a good stock and so I made a shot, a bow at a venture, and so I ventured to say, "Sir, I am sorry for your boy." "My boy? Why are you sorry for my boy?" I said, "I am sorry for your boy because he is going to drink lower down the stream. You are drinking of a stream of which you are not acknowledging the source, but he is going to drink without the memory of a religious home, where prayer is wont to be made." It was just as though I had stabbed the man. He turned ghastly white. He realized how much it meant for his son that he was not setting him an example of prayer and purity, which means power. I am not going to keep you longer, but to say this. I said to him "Is it an accident or is it a Providence that you and I, men from the Old Country, thousands of miles from home, should meet at this particular place, this beauty spot of the world, and in less than twenty-five minutes exchange heart and mind as only men can, concerning the things that matter." He said, "I think it is a Providence, sir." I said, "I am sure it is."

Thank you so much gentlemen for inviting me to lunch and letting me talk in this free and easy way, which is my nature. You cannot change your nature when you are sixty-seven. (Laughter). What's bred in the bone will come out of the mouth. (Applause).

The thanks of the club to the speaker were voiced by THE RIGHT REVEREND BISHOP SWEENEY.

THE CREATION OF WEALTH

AN ADDRESS BY HOLLIS GODFREY, SC.D., ENG. D.,
LL.D., J.U.D., D.C.L., F.R.G.S., PRESIDENT OF
THE ENGINEERING ECONOMIC FOUNDATION,
BOSTON

17th November, 1927.

COLONEL ALEXANDER FRASER presided. DR. GODFREY spoke as follows :

When I come into Canada, I always feel that I am merely returning, not coming; because during the past twelve years, once and again Canada has honoured me, twice to come up here to receive the doctorate from Canadian Universities, once as speaker before the Royal Society, and during the war as a liaison officer with Canadian education. Next to my own country there is none with which I have been so bound. Our Foundation has on it officers from Canada as well as from the United States, and in the great development of the past twenty-two years it has had the great privilege of having its conclusions checked not only by my colleagues from Canada, but by older colleagues of Cambridge University.

What we have been doing has simply been to find the answer to two questions, and only two, which are in the minds of every man and woman who has to deal with modern commerce. Twenty-two years ago the first publication came out on this research, and for twenty-two years our group has been continuously studying these basic problems. First : How does wealth,—goods and service of value for human use—grow ? How do these tools of our modern civilization, railways, motors, roads, structures, all these tools with which we live and have our being, grow ? And next, what work is required to keep wealth growing ? For wealth, the real wealth of the world, comes only through work, and there is no other way. In those two great problems of determining how wealth grows, and what work must be done to keep growing, lies the fundamental field which we have been studying during all these years.

Strangely enough there has never been any real literature on the subject, as it affects the United States and Canada. From 1900 to 1927 the Wilder Library at Harvard, which collects practically all books on the subject, bought 67 books. Of that group, only four were by Americans and considered American wealth, with some reference to Canadian wealth. All the others were in other countries; they considered wealth from English agricultural bases, or English labour problems, from French bases, from German bases, from Belgian bases, but growth of wealth on this continent—except for four classic books, all of which discussed only the present state of wealth and not the past—is lacking. As a result we have been obliged to go into a virgin field. Again and again our only sources were Government records, industrial records, records of health, records of movement, of laws and their effect. And what you hear to-day is the co-ordination of these original sources in a shape which makes it possible for us to solve the great problem of the cause of the growth of wealth first, and second of the way in which men and women can be taught to understand the work necessary to make those causes produce the proper effect of gain.

First of all in any research we are obliged to have a base line; we are obliged to have a single line of comparison. No records had ever been co-ordinated of the growth of wealth in the United States. To find that line we went back to the parliamentary estimates of 1700, went through the colonial period, took the administration at Washington and the estimates of Alexander Hamilton, and then brought the growth in wealth—and by growth in wealth remember I am only speaking of the physical wealth, the chairs, the tables, the food, the structures, the lights which we are using, and regarding it in the values given to it by the people of the time. After beginning that investigation we threw out the years 1700 to 1790, because in 1790 the modern movement began in the United States. It was a very slow movement. In 1790 the total wealth of the United States was only three-quarters of a billion, $750,000,000 worth of tools, less than many a corporation has to-day. And then for sixty years, down to the period just preceding the administration of Lincoln that growth was very slow. On the chart you will see a low red line rising so slowly that in 1850 we had only a little more than four hundred per cent. increase. There were still less than four billion dollars' worth of tools in the United States. Then you see a sudden turn, and just before the Civil War comes a growth and it rises steadily and persistently on a second level up to 1900, and the Rooseveldt administration. In those years from 1850 to 1900 the wealth of the United States increased 11,700 per cent., whereas during the sixty years previous it had increased only about 400 per cent. But then with an absolute suddenness, as complete as the turning on of an electric light, that curve turned sharply and started almost perpendicularly up, and from 1900 to 1927 we have increased the wealth of the United States by more than 50,000 per cent. Eighty per cent. of the total wealth of the United States has come in our lifetime during the past 27 years, and the whole 110 years preceding gave us but twenty per cent. of the total gain. Now when we have once organized we saw, as I say, that there were three great trends, the low trend slowly rising to 400 per cent; the second trend to a little more than 10,000, and then that last sharp movement upward, rising to 50,000.

Why had wealth turned at those points ? If we could solve the problem of that turn, of what work was done at that point, we should know why those changes resulted. Now wealth is goods and services of value for human use. There is no beginning of wealth except through man, because all wealth is inert until man takes hold of it, produces or consumes it. Therefore we turn to the second factor, what has man to do with those turns ? First of course we studied the increase in population of the United States from 1790 to 1927. That is a low curve marked by no special changes, rising to less than 3,000 per cent. of what we had in 1790. There is no resemblance whatever, there is no indication that the body of men, that the quantity of man power, has any effect whatever on any gain in wealth. There is no proof that unrestricted immigration would have any effect whatever upon the gain of wealth of the country. There was a slight turn in 1870 in the Grant administration, in population. It had no effect, apparently, upon wealth. The rest has been a slow and steady increase. Then, through the aid of the United States Commissioner of Education, we began a study of the public and private High School students from 1790 to 1927. That was the first time that High School education had been taken as the test of education. University education rises from it, extension education extends from it; the index is your High School population. Rising almost exactly for the first sixty years it runs lower than wealth. It fell a little behind in 1900, and then to our amazement in 1900 the curve of increase of High School population joins exactly with the line of wealth, and from 1900 to 1927 the increase of wealth has been 414 per cent. on the base of 1900, and the increase in public and private High School population has been 410 per cent. Point by point, year by year, line by line, your increase in public and private High School population has gone with the line of wealth.

We had then two factors of wealth. We knew its growth over the period of the life of the nation; we knew the growth of the educated man through the life of the nation. The next problem that came was to determine that great tool, and the advance of the only tool which men have by which they can act upon wealth, that is the printed page and the graphic arts. We cannot affect wealth with our minds in any other way. So we started to find as a check reaction, to test the accuracy of our movements first, and later for its own value, the growth of knowledge during those years. We took the Harvard Library for two reasons; first, we knew it best, and second, because the life of Harvard Library is absolutely coeval, as it chances, with the life of wealth of the nation. Beginning in 1790 it stayed below the line of wealth until 1800. It crossed the line of wealth in 1800, and the number of titles, showing the increase in knowledge, from that date to this, moves steadily upward and always ahead of the line of wealth. If you curve the two, knowledge on the printed page moves up with absolute certainty, turning at those three points sharply and moving upward in advance of the line of wealth. Pushing out your boundaries of knowledge brings sequential advance in wealth. Use of the books which record the pushing out of those boundaries of knowledge, brings that increase in wealth. There are three factors in any growth of wealth; one, men who are educated men; two, the tools used by the educated man, the books which record organized knowledge; and three, wealth.

We had not yet reached the point where we understood those changes in trend, but we saw that if we examined the actual content of those books, what had been written in those years, that we ought to be able to get a line on why wealth turned. So we went back and studied what was in the library before 1850, what was in the library between 1850 and 1900, and what had been in the library from 1900 until to-day. As a matter of fact there was only one book which you really could call a book of economics before 1840, and that was Adam Smith's Wealth of Nations. That book had succeeded, with the comments on it, in defining a field of wealth. The other books were general philosophies. And then in 1832 came along the publication regarding facts about wealth, "The Iron Age," and in 1842 Harvard subscribed to "The Iron Age." If you read the journals of that day, the old New York *Evening Post*, the Boston *Advertiser*, the early papers, you will find that in that early period they are almost entirely concerned with two types of news. They have political news *in extenso* and very vehement in many cases; and they have local news; but they have no business news. Then in 1840 begins the recording of business news; they are recording the building of a dam; they are recording the building of a mill, they are recording how many men there are in the mill; they are telling of the development of new looms, and how much is made by those looms. And following "The Iron Age" you get a few more of the first business papers, which come in and record those facts specifically, and they are sent to the manufacturers and to some of the universities. Then from 1840 to 1890 you find a period in which people are collecting facts; they are not organized facts, there are no great general principles, but they are organizing great masses of facts. In 1875 they began to record bank clearings, and that is the first record of the movement of money. They began to record the imports and exports, and then about 1880 you get a completely new movement passing into effect in the next twenty years. Tyndal comes over from England to Yale in 1878, and then again in 1880, and preaches the necessity for engineering publications. Amasa Walker in 1884 at Yale produced his Economics, the first great development of industrial economics from political economics. Thaw at Cambridge produces his bibliography of economical industry, and there are only 34 titles on it in 1890. But all those men preached one thing, that we must extend knowledge of business, and we must put it on the printed page. Chandler at Columbia does the same thing, and Osler going down from Montreal, first to Pennsylvania, and then to Hopkins, preaches that man power is the object of all national life and that preventive medicine must come into effect and preserve men if we would have men to produce and to consume. A great group of leaders preached the necessity for organizing knowledge and putting it upon the printed page. That movement increased up to 1900, and then in 1900, on the exact point where that curve invariably goes up, comes your great sweep of publications. Man and his mind, man and his book, man and gain in wealth, all move together.

Those were the bases, and now to turn to the question of work that produces that wealth, and the resources back of it. Back of that wealth came capacities for doing work. Suppose for a moment we simply review what those capacities for doing work really are. What have you and I that we can use to produce wealth ? We have fundamentally only four great resources. We have first the resources of man, biological energy, the energy of mind and body. Using the resources and capacities of physical energy, power, and the resources and capacities of chemical energy, chemical materials, we have the energy that men accept to transfer those energies, which is finance, money. That is all we have. And day after day we are simply using biological energy, simply using our minds and bodies, using the physical energy with chemical energy and transferring it by money, finance. There is your basis. Suppose we look at this relationship of education and wealth in terms of those four. If we go back and study the line of wealth from 1880 to 1890 we shall find a very slow increase. In 1885 there were reported in the state of Massachusetts electrical horsepower to the amount of 58 horsepower. I remember that very vividly, because that fifty horsepower took a very rickety electric car around the Thompson Houston Works in Lynn, Mass., and because my father happened to be a mill stockholder in the Thompson Houston, I rode in that car on its first day, and I do do not think I am quite senile yet. I have not any doubt that there are a few of you that can remember 1885 without any difficulty. In 1885 there was 58 horsepower generated electrically in Massachusetts. The first power station had come in 1882. In 1900 they had increased the chemical industries to the vast sum of a little under 200 million dollars; that was the value of the chemical products. From 1890 to 1900 the work of Dr. Osler had produced a condition in preventive medicines, followed by my own master Sedgwick, and they had increased the actuarial expectancy of life between three and four months. And all that great work of the great group of research men and teachers took its effect in 1900. In 1900 we had increased to the amount of 2,500 kilowatts of power. We had 200 million dollars' worth of chemical products, and man's life was just beginning to be extended. And then that great curve came, and when we analyzed the use of those resources in work we find that preventive medicine has increased our average life by a quarter of the working life, and that we have and may expect according to the actuarial figures practically a quarter more of working life than our fathers had. That is working life, not total life. Total life has not been increased, but working life has. We find the great chemical industries to-day producing our materials, 2,000 per cent. increase, and we find electric power from one end of both our nations to the other, 3,000 per cent. increase, and we find that that wealth came first from the increased use, the useful use of biological energy and man power, of physical energy and power, and of chemical energy and chemical products. But there was one other factor which might be positive or negative, and that was finance. Where we have speeded up our rate of gain of wealth so that today we are gaining wealth ten times as fast as we were in 1890, year by year, there was a factor which affected the United States during those years to retard that materially, and that was the organization of its finance. When we had completed that check we saw definitely that we knew where education and wealth fitted in with the great primary resources, for there was no kilowatt of power ever developed that was not preceded by engineering text and teaching, and there was never a pound of chemical energy that was brought out that was not preceded by chemical text and teaching, and every day that has come from preventive medicine and sanitary engineering was preceded by engineering text and teaching. How did it work in finance ? So we took that line of wealth and examined it in terms of finance. In 1869 the National Bank Act defined the field of finance in the United States. But the mere definition of that field had no effect. I am saying here what I have said before, that search as we may, we have never been able to find that a law affects wealth, except where it organizes facts. Laws based on opinions leave wealth unmoved as much as when you bring a non-conductor up to any conductor.

The movement in finance did not begin until 1875, and there, as I noted earlier, in 1875 was begun the record of the facts of the movement of money in the United States. Bank clearings were established, and the moment these bank clearings were established, money moved right up, the line of finance moved up near the line of wealth. They kept on collecting facts, but they never caught up to the line of wealth, until in 1913 the Federal Reserve Act, which was an organization of principles fundamental upon the records of facts obtained between 1875 and 1913. The moment that was established the line turned, sharpened, and went up at an angle. From that time to 1921 it was approaching the line of wealth and at 1921 it passed it, and since 1921 we have had adequate money to carry on the exchanges of wealth, and we never had it before. Now that line corresponds again. The law defined the field. The bank clearings recorded the facts; the Federal Reserve Act organized the facts into principles.

Now I am going to take a moment to take you back to your most elementary arithmetic. If you think back to your arithmetic you remember that every new division of arithmetic had three sections at its beginning; first the rule, than a little example, and then the factors or facts. What we were doing until we began to organize, we simply had the facts, we did not have the rules. Until you have the rules and the principles you can solve no problem in mathematics or in wealth. The whole of this vast 80 per cent. has come because we organized the facts and the rules, so that men could, following those rules, solve the problems, as we can solve problems in arithmetic.

When we had finished that we said, "The next thing we ought to do is to find out whether it really has worked on business success or failure." I remember, as many of you remember, the old phrase before 1900. I have heard my father say, that 90 per cent. of the people in business failed. I said, let us study success or failure. So we obtained from Bradstreet's first the line of the number of people in business and that trailed across from 1881 to 1927. We can go back to 1887 with accurate figures. Next we took the line of failures. That started away up above that line all the way through to 1900, then dropped, came below the line, only three times to rise again; once was the panic of 1907, the silent panic of Wall Street; another was the time we completely misjudged the resources we had in the war, the capacities for doing work, and the third followed the war and the influenza, of which I shall speak a moment later. We took that line and calculated from those two the percentage of failures. From 1881 to 1900 the curve of failures is far up in the upper part of the curve. Just before 1900 it drops like a plummet (as I shall show you on the chart). In 1900 that line of knowledge came up to 1900 collecting of facts, and the moment the organization of facts began, it rose. When knowledge had been high for the past fifty years, the last half of that period, failures are low. When knowledge was low in organized facts, failures have been high. The period of high failures ceased in 1900, as organized facts developed. We had proved by that time—and you must see back of these, back of each final chart which I have here, sometimes seven, sometimes nine years, usually three or four years, because I am giving you the successes. There were many failures; in a study of this kind where you go back into virgin field it means trial after trial, to find your data, to obtain the method, and to check. From beginning to end we have used the method of the War Council, because all these are submitted to masters of their individual lines with opportunity for criticism of any fact or of any method, over and over again. The material now goes out to 140 men, every one of whom is a first expert in a given line. We went back to analyse the different groups. What was the base ? The basis of it all is man power, and we saw that that great circle of wealth in its production started first with the bread winner using the experience of mind and the printed page, using the tools of physical energy, power, chemical energy, biological energy, in agriculture, on matter, materials, to produce wealth. The tools of human life, houses, motors, railroads, telephones, are to distribute those great services and goods to the consuming public, the family. What you have is a constant motion from the bread winner back to the family, and in that family recovering that energy it moves back to your bread winner. It is a constant cycle. Now of all things affecting business most, comes that problem of man power, and I am going to give you just one illustration, without going further here,—the effect of the great epidemics upon business crises. You must remember, constantly studying that line of life in terms of all other things that happened during those years, year by year, from 1790 to 1927, every major occurrence has been studied in terms of the line of life. We found there are three primary causes for business depressions, first, insufficient money; that ceased and there has been no such condition since the Federal Reserve Act went into force. Before that when there was insufficient money to get the exchange you might have a business crisis. Second, some war effect. But third and most powerful, when we began to consider the question of epidemics, we found that from 1814 until the first influenza epidemic, down through the cholera of 1884, down to the influenza of 1918, invariably business crisis had come synchronously with the year of those epidemics. That started a whole line of checks. There were no exceptions, if we removed the other two causes. We checked the influenza of 1918 to find out what effect it had on man power. That one epidemic took in the United States one million dead, twenty million cases out of a population of roughly 100 millions, and of those one out of every four was left disabled. The hospital records showed that one out of every four did not recover at the end of the disease, but went on sick for months, sometimes sick for life. You had disabled one-fifth or twenty per cent. of your population. If you translate that into terms of the savings banks books of a group of factory towns in Massachusetts, you will find it cost the workman two and a half years of his savings, that single epidemic. You will find the hospital cases and the nursing cases so advancing that the total cost prevents their buying. It not only takes them out of production, it diminishes their production, but it actually kills buying power. That is just one thing, it is the destruction of human capacities for doing work. It is the destruction of the primary resources of production and of consumption.

Now I shall turn to my colleague who is able to discuss this entire problem in terms of Canadian resources and Canadian environment. (Applause.)

PROFESSOR MORROW, University of Western Ontario, London: In the field of economics we can perhaps recognize two outstanding phenomena, or I might say inventions, though the word does not suit it, the two eras when there was a sudden reorganization of knowledge within the field. That first era was the time when Adam Smith wrote his Wealth of Nations and put down in black and white, in organized form, such knowledge as man had at that time at his disposal, largely opinion. Later Mr. Walker, of Yale, marked the next step, the advance the applied practical economics, who tried to reach his conclusions not on a basis of deductive theory but on a basis of measurement. The work of the economist has largely been proceeding apace from that time. I might perhaps instance too the introduction of the statistical theory during the last few years, which has done so much to advance the measurement of economic facts. We have always, however, been lacking in one great fundamental thing in the field of economics, and that is, the facts and figures that lie behind human life. I think I am right in saying that Dr. Godfrey today has brought to us what perhaps is another—a great revolutionary move in the field of economics, namely, the development of facts instead of opinions. Dr. Godfrey's work has been checked by the best experts we have on this continent and in England and other parts of the world, and you cannot get anything better than the best experts to-day, and we should not hesitate for one moment to accept the results of their labours.

(Applause.) There is an urgent need for these basic facts. Dr. Godfrey has come here to-day and given us something revolutionary in the way of a tool, and I would like to tell him that we are Canadians, we are not Americans. We are grateful to him for the tool, we are grateful to him for the lead he has given us, but I for one am not inclined to take his conclusions, which are American conclusions, and apply them to Canada. What are our own facts ? What will an examination of our own country show ? There are fundamental conditions of difference between this country and the country on the other side of the line, and any business man knows it. Take our marketing problem, a distinctly different problem, because in the middle of this country we have a great unproductive territory of a thousand miles in extent. In the Middle West of the United States they have a great population, and their immigration in that country and development of settlement has proceeded steadily from the east to west. That has not been the case in this country. Consequently measurements made on an American basis will not fit Canada. We have a different latitude from the United States. We have an arctic climate and a temperate climate; the States have a temperate climate and a semi-tropical climate. Our rivers flow differently. Our transportation system works differently. We have no colour problem in this country. We have a hundred and one differences between Canada and the United States, and while I say that we gratefully accept Dr. Godfrey's tool, we cannot accept his conclusions until they have been proved. I hope that it will not be long before Dr. Godfrey and his organization can be induced to come to Canada, and save us the trouble of going through the heart-breaking work of 22 years that he has gone through; that he will come here with a finished tool and apply it to our conditions, and then help us reach our own conclusions. (Applause.) I think there is urgent need of it, and our opportunity is great if we can profit from the experience, and proceed without the mistakes that were made upon the other side of the line. I give you one instance. To-day we are faced with a great era of mergers. Why are mergers coming on in this country coming as they are ? Because of a fundamental basic fact that is producing those mergers. To-day the world feels the desirability of reducing the cost of distribution. Now the cost of distribution depends upon study, study of our markets, market analysis, complicated computations in regard to these things, which are done and have been done in the United States. I will briefly say that the Woolworth Co., on the other side, forecast their markets for 22,000 different articles a year ahead, and they are never half a per cent. out. The Dennison Company has done so for a year and never been one per cent. out. Those things can be done, but it means a tremendous increase in the overhead of business. That is highly expensive expert work, and the only business that can stand that overhead, so that eventually they can reap the economy of that extra expense, is a very large business. We cannot advance in distribution until we have a business that can stand the enormous overhead burden. Either that or some form of close association in business which will be able to do in common for a large number of small concerns the work they cannot singly do themselves. Gentlemen, what will these facts show us in our railway problems ? What will they show us on our immigration problems, and above all, what will they show on the question, How far are we going to let our Government go in its control of business ? (Applause.)

DR. GODFREY: I wish to say how utterly and completely I agree with every word Professor Morrow has said, and I want to apply one very homely illustration. Those of you who are my contemporaries will remember that we used to study the geography with two globes, and I reveal a State secret when I say I had spent many useful hours studying books of fiction behind those globes. The only value of the geography was as a shield. But the fact is we have reversed that, and we are teaching the children in terms of their own school, of their own schoolhouse, and of their own city, which they know.

We are teaching them in terms they know, and all modern education says that the only way to get the result is through teaching human beings. We call it human geography now. You will never get your results until you transpose this great organization of knowledge, of which I am only the centre of a great group of companies, into terms of this great nation of yours. For if there is anything in which I have true and absolute confidence, it is in the great destiny of Canada. (Applause.)

The Chairman conveyed the cordial thanks of the meeting to both the speakers.

THE FUTURE OF AVIATION IN CANADA

BY GENERAL J. H. MacBRIEN, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., OTTAWA

24th November, 1927

GENERAL MACBRIEN was introduced by COLONEL FRASER, and was greeted with a hearty round of applause He spoke as follows:—I thank you for your reception, for your invitation which has brought me here, and for this opportunity of explaining to you the aims and objects of a new patriotic organization called The Canadian Air League, which has for its motto one which I think will appeal to the members of this club, that is "Canada and the Empire United by Air." (Applause). Those of you who have studied the mythologies and religions of the world will be aware of the fact that flight has always been one of the chief aspirations of man. In those mythologies and religions, the supreme being was given his home in the vast region above us, and he had the power to move at will through the atmosphere, through those vast regions, and therefore flight has been a tribute of godliness, and to the ancients one of the chief distinctions between a deity and a human. The religious people thought in the olden times that if a man attempted to fly he was indulging in sorcery. They took the stand that if God intended man to fly He would have endowed him with wings. Angels had wings and could fly, and the devil had wings and could fly. If a man succeeded in flying he must have been inspired by the devils and therefore ought to be proscribed. Particularly in the Middle Ages, and even earlier, man's attempts to fly were frustrated for religious reasons. Back as early as 350 B.C. it is recorded in history that a model in the form of a dove was made to fly. The ancient philosophers and scientists noticed that there were two things that had the power to move through the air. One was a bird, and from that we get our heavier-than-air craft; the other was smoke and vapor, and from that we have the development of the lighter-than-air craft. Those two schools of aeronautic thought have developed down through the ages, and as early as the time of Our Lord, immediately after, there was a man by the name of Simon, a scientist who said there was nothing marvelous in the Ascension, that he could project himself into the sky and disappear. He gave his flying exhibition in the Forum at Rome before the Emperor Nero. The Apostle Peter was there and other Christians; they prayed that he might not be successful because they thought he was indulging in sacrilege. Before this vast assembly he did project him self in a balloon with hot air in it, high enough to be killed by the subsequent fall. Beginning with that lighter-than-air craft we get the first successful balloon flight in 1783 by two brothers, the Montgolfier brothers, and they really perfected the present balloon. And from that we have now the dirigible airships. The latest models, being constructed in England, are of immense size, 700 feet long, 130 feet high, and will carry a hundred passengers with a crew of 35. Passengers will be allowed 112 pounds of baggage. There are dining saloons much larger than this room, two-berth cabins, each cabin with a porthole, dancing saloons, promenade decks, baths, and every luxury you can imagine. Those of us at the Imperial Conference last autumn saw those two in course of construction. The Dominion Government at that conference agreed to the erection of a mooring mast, and that is being undertaken now south of Montreal. This big hitching-post, as it has been called, will be 250 feet high. The first trial flight is supposed to be from England to Canada in August of next year. The speed of this airship will be about a hundred miles an hour, from 90 to 100. It will be driven by seven 600 h.p. engines, and will take two days to cross the Atlantic, coming to the westward, and less time going back with the winds.

That is the lighter-than-air craft. Heavier-than-air craft development was a slower one, until the internal combustion engine was invented. Sir George Cayley in 1809 laid down the principles of flight of the heavier-than-air craft, which were afterward put into practice successfully by the Wright brothers in the United States 24 years ago, in December 1903. Since 1903 we have seen the most intensive development in the heavier-than-air craft and instead of it being rather a hap-hazard business, as it was in 1903, the aeroplane now is one of the most scientific machines constructed, and is a tribute to man's perseverence, to his daring, and to his scientific knowledge. We come to the situation now when we see all countries of the world vying with each other to establish aviation in their countries, for two main reasons first, because they see in it a great instrument or machine which is going to influence their industrial and economic life; and secondly, they see in it one of the four or five very important instruments or weapons for defence. For these two reasons all progressive nations now are struggling to establish aviation upon a sound basis, for those two uses.

Flying today is safe, as safe as any other form of transportation, provided four main requirements are observed. The accidents we read about are nearly all caused because these requirements, which I shall enumerate to you, are not observed. The requirements are these: First, the very best material in the world available must be used; that is, don't fly the Atlantic with a single-engine machine, but fly it with multiple-engine craft, three engines or more. Secondly, the best trained personnel in the world must be used—the best available, not necessarily the best in the world. Thirdly, you must have organized routes, organized airways and airports. They are as necessary to safe flying as roadways to motor cars, and lastly, you must have good communications, that is, wireless communications, and also weather reports, meterological service. If you observe those four conditions, flying is safe. Without them, flying is not safe. Every new form of transportation goes through a period of suspicion. I have come across extracts from some old papers of 1845, items written regarding the use of the railway train, and an English newspaper stated that probably the greatest return from the use of the railway would be the return of the list of killed and injured; and that the idea of a railway train being able to travel safely at eight miles an hour was ridiculous. (Laughter). Now we are going through the same period of suspicion, to some extent, with the use of aircraft in this country as a means of transportation, but there is no need to be like the negro who refused to ride in an aeroplane when he was asked, saying "No thank you, sir, terra firma for me, and the more firma, the less terra." (Laughter).

Now as quickly as I can, we shall take the development that is going on in the different large countries of the world, and compare it with our own, and see if we are lagging behind or not in the use of aviation as a means of developing this country. Take Europe, which is about the size of Canada; it has today 746,000 miles of organized air routes. Each country has its aerial league helping the respective governments to establish aviation upon a sound basis.

In Czechoslovakia alone, one of the new countries formed by the Peace Treaty, there is a league of 80,000 supporting aviation. In Germany—and Germany leads the world in the development of civil aviation today—there is a league of over 200,000 supporting the government and the municipalities. In Germany they have 15,000 miles of organized air routes, and German aircraft fly 40,000 miles a day, carrying passengers, mails, merchandise, and everything that you can mention. That system is being expanded and extended all over Europe as fast as Germany is able to do it. France is trying to keep pace with that development in Germany, and to a great extent she is succeeding, but the Germans at the present time lead the world in civil aviation. They have had to devote their whole scientific knowledge and experience in flying to civil aviation, because they are forbidden to develop their military aircraft by the Peace Treaty. That has been to their advantage in that respect. In Germany today we find two of the well-known companies for the construction of aircraft joined up with two of their shipping companies, and they are building one an aeroplane with eight engines, and the other a flying boat with multiple engines. I do not know the exact number—and they have both announced that they intend to establish a trans-Atlantic service in 1929. In France the same aviator who flew the British Channel first is organizing a company to fly to the United States by way of the Azores, with multiple-engine craft, not with single-engine machines. Here is a map that explains better than I can do in words the development that has taken place in Europe. Here is a map of the routes in 1920; underneath are those of 1926, and this big map shows 1927. You can see that you can travel to any place in Europe by those routes that are established, and you can travel safely because the routes are organized, and you can travel at little more than a first-class railway fare. I have not time to deal with Russia, but a significant fact is this, that the Russian lines are extended out towards the northwest frontier of India, and they have a flying mission in Kabul now, in Afghanistan. France leads the world in military aviation; she has planes that can manoeuvre and fight at 32,000 feet altitude, and she has the best military aircraft in the world. She has 8,000 miles of organized air routes, so you can see she is not lagging far behind on the civil side.

In Great Britain, which is much smaller, there are a thousand miles of air routes organized, operated chiefly by the Imperial Airways, which is a monopoly. There is only one company and they are carrying thousands and thousands of passengers safely without accident, because they observe those conditions which I enumerated. Take one sister Dominion, Australia, so as to get a comparison with our own country as a Dominion. They have 3,500 miles of organized air routes. They voted a million dollars a few months ago to extend that by 4,500 miles, which would give them a total of over 8,000 miles of air routes. It will give them a complete circuit of the island continent by air, and lines connecting the main centres.

Now we come to the United States where a very, very intensive development is taking place. There are 24 air lines operating in the United States. The main line is a trunk line extending from New York to San Francisco carrying mails and passengers in two days' time. This trunk line is fed by branch lines north and south, and many of the representatives of their companies have been up in Canada at the central points, trying to organize lines from Canada to feed the main trunk line across the United States. They have time tables issued now that you can look up the same as the ordinary railway time table, so that wherever you travel you can go by air. Sixty-five million of their people are served by the air mail, and you can travel to any of the main cities of the United States in that way quickly and safely. They have in the United States an Air League called the National Aeronautic Association, and they have for their object, naturally, to make their country first in the air, and their showing is that United States planes flew five million miles last year on the organized routes, without a single accident. There have been hundreds of accidents in the United States, but the cause has been what might be called indiscriminate and unsafe, not properly organized flying. Again Mr. Levine, of trans-Atlantic fame, is completing a seven-engine aircraft to fly between the United States and Europe. He is completing, as a matter of fact, seven of them. Great impetus was given to aviation in the United States by Lindbergh's wonderful flight. Lindbergh was a wonderful aviator, but he was extremely lucky to get over the Atlantic with a single engine. His flight enthused a Chinaman who is living in the United States, who had a son born about that time and he wanted to name the boy after Lindbergh. He did not know how to weave Lindbergh's name into the Chinese language, but after some thought he decided to call the boy One Long Hop. (Laughter). So they are happy, and I am sure Lindbergh is very happy to have a little boy named after him in that way.

Now we come to aviation in Canada. How many miles of organized air routes have we here in Canada today? None; not one. Are we, then, lagging behind in the use of aircraft as a means of transportation, which is its greatest use? We who have been closely in touch with aviation, say "Yes, we are lagging behind." The greatest work the Canadian Air League has to do and can do, is to assist in the development and use of aviation as a means of transportation in this vast country of ours. We think it can be used to carry mails, passengers, express merchandise, and help develop this huge country that we have as a most valued heritage. We think that we are at an important time in this development that should take place. We think that unless Canadians undertake it, that it will be done for us, chiefly by our cousins from the south. They are surveying possibilities of building aircraft for Canada, establishing branch companies in Canada, or running spurs up to Canada, and unless we start to do this for ourselves, then we will be in the same position for a hundred years to come that we are now in relation to the motor car industry—that our aircraft will be built, for the most part, probably in the United States, instead of in Canada here. So we have as an object of the League the establishment of the aircraft industry in Canada, with its fifty odd ancillary trades and professions. So we decided two or three months ago—a band of about fifteen of us who have had considerable experience in aviation—to start the organization of this Canadian Air League, and I have been right across Canada both ways, east and west, to all the main centres, and branches of the League are being formed in every large centre of Canada today. All the prominent men that I have approached in the various provinces have agreed to lend their assistance to the League, after they have heard what its aims and objects are, and I propose now to give you as briefly as I can, the aims and objects of the League and see if you agree with them, and if so, I will bespeak your assistance for the League.

The first is to ensure the fullest development of civil and commercial aviation in Canada. Secondly, to foster Canadian interests in aviation manufacturing and to encourage education, research, experiment and manufacture, in the science of aeronautics, by private enterprise in the schools and colleges and universities, and by the Dominion and Provincial governments. Thirdly, to secure the provision and maintenance of an Air Force adequate to meet the needs of national defence. Fourth, the policy is to be a national one and an imperial one, and to be entirely independent of all political parties.

These are the aims of the League. Now you will say, how can the League help the attainment of those aims? I will give you some of the work the League has undertaken already or will undertake when it is fully organized. The first is to create an educated public opinion on aviation matters—airmindedness, or airconsciousness, it has been sometimes called. That is what has been done with aviation elsewhere. I am glad to say that everywhere I have gone in Canada the public men and the press have assisted in making known the information that we have been able to collect so far, as to what has been done in other countries in the development of aviation. We intend to inaugurate courses of lectures on aviation by prominent airmen. Thirdly, demonstration flights of new aircraft will be arranged by the League. Fourth, annual competitions to develop reliability and endurance of aircraft. Fifthly, facilities for education in aeronautical engineering and air engineering, and air mechanics, to be created in Canada. Sixthly, the publication of a national journal devoted to aviation. Other countries have theirs; the United States has half a dozen, England has half a dozen. This is the Air League Journal of the British Empire (showing) with which we are affiliated. We intend in Canada to have an aviation journal; we have not a single one in our country today. We want it to be of general interest to the public, and we want it to be of technical value to those who are actually engaged or are thinking of engaging in aviation. We intend to set up a bureau of information within the

League, so that if anyone wishes to start an aviation transportation company, he can send to the League for the latest data concerning the costs, and the returns that may be expected. And we intend to encourage practical flying by helping in the organization of flying clubs; and about fifteen of these are already in process of organization across the Dominion of Canada, in the large centres. And in the large centres like Montreal and Toronto we will encourage the formation of flying schools of instruction. I think Montreal has had over 700 applications from young Canadians to join the flying club, alone. Over 500 of those have asked to learn to fly; they are very keen on learning to fly, and the light aeroplane club will hardly be able to deal with that number of applications, so a commercial school of flying instruction would do very well in centres such as that. There is really no fully organized place in Canada where a young boy can learn to fly. We intend to make periodical representations to the Dominion and Provincial governments and to municipalities as to the support needed by aviation for its development. We intend to co-operate with the Defence Department in the organization of a reserve of qualified pilots and in the establishment of a non-permanent air force. It is a principle of service in Canada that the defence of our country is to be done by non-permanent troops so it would be natural if the Dominion Government formed a non-permanent air force, and the League will help in that. Remember, probably most of the flying will be done by young men, and when the main part is fully organized we intend to form a junior branch of the League, so as to give the young men of Canada an idea as to whether or not they would like to engage in aviation as an occupation; not necessarily in flying but as mechanics or engineers, of aeronautical engineering which is the designing of aircraft. Lastly, we intend to co-operate with the Air League of the British Empire in every way that presents itself.

I want to say just one word on the educational work. In no other branch of engineering or scientific work has the progress been so intensive as in aeronautical engineering. Before the war, Germany, Russia and France had established educational institutions to meet the need of providing places for their young men to get this education. Since the war quite a number of places have been established in England and in the United States, but at present there is no fully organized institution in Canada where a young Canadian can go and even get a mechanical education, or an air engineering education, or an aeronautical education. Toronto University has made a start, but with that exception there is not a single institution in Canada to which a young Canadian can go and get these very necessary qualifications. Now they will go somewhere else and get it if our educational authorities do not provide courses for them here. They will go to the United States, which we do not want them to do. Or they will go abroad. In the Royal Canadian Air Force we have had to send our technical officers to England at the present time to become qualified in this branch. We think that the League can do a good work, and a good deal has been accomplished already throughout Canada in bringing this deficiency before the educational authorities.

Now I want to dwell on the flying clubs. One has been organized in Toronto and the Government is subsidizing it. It cannot be operated on a commercial basis at all, but it will provide a means for young Canadians to learn to fly. It will be an elementary knowledge that they will gain in these flying clubs but they will be able to decide after having begun a course, a ground instructional course provided, and in flying, as to whether or not they would like to go on to commercial aviation. A great many are joining the clubs with that purpose in view. If they do not go into civil aviation, they will serve as a reserve officers' list in the country for a non-permanent air force.

Now about aircraft and trade. Most of you will know better than I do that competition in trade now-a-days is so keen that no firm can be without a tool or a machine which saves time in the conduct of the business, or which gives greater mobility in the three elements that go to make up business, men money and materials. Now the aeroplane gives you greater mobility in those three business essentials, and no progressive country really can be without the aircraft industry and without aviation as a means of transportation. Aviation as a means of transportation is now being used by most of the large firms in the United States and we will be a backward country very soon unless we establish it in the same way, because it saves time. Time is an important factor in business. It saves time in getting in your order, it will save time in manufacturing your product, it will safe time in distributing it, it will save time in the management of your different branches, and it will save time in collecting your money; therefore you can operate your company with less capital and less stock and you get a faster turnover. Far-seeing business men of the United States have seized upon this new instrument, this new machine, as has Europe too. The Germans seized the possibilities of re-establishing their country in the foremost position as a great trading nation which they lost during the war. They have thought by developing aviation as they are doing that they will regain it, and therefore take a leading place in the world again.

I think if you grant that the development of aviation is good for Canada, then we cannot afford to be without it, and that is the chief work that the League has undertaken. One of the great problems in the development of any country, but particularly Canada, is that of transportation. The development of aviation will help solve one form of transportation. Organization of airways will give us greater cohesion in this country of ours. The east will be brought close to Ottawa. The west will be brought close to Ottawa and Toronto. Whether it is desirable to be close to Ottawa or not, I leave to you. (Laughter). But they do say all good Canadians come to Ottawa some time or other, for something or other; so if we have an air service between Ottawa and Toronto, as I hope soon, you will be able to come down often and see your friends there. In these days of aviation, airways, and airports, a country without them will be regarded as unprogressive, and a city without a well-organized airport will not be even a flag station, because they cannot stop. The Mayor of Vancouver went down to California some time ago with a special invitation to Lindbergh to visit Vancouver. Lindbergh said "Yes, I would be delighted to come; where can I land? I use a machine with wheels on it." The Mayor said "Unfortunately we have not got an airport." Lindbergh said "Then I cannot come." The Mayor has been doing his best ever since to find suitable ground for an airport. The history of that is that as soon as a city does get an airport air traffic commences, and grows from that day on.

The Canadians did well in the war as pilots; they have a natural ability in the air. They did wonderfully well; they did their full share in making the Empire supreme in the Great War, and ten thousand of these same airmen served in the Royal Air Force and the Royal Naval Air Force. They are back here in Canada; I have met hundreds and hundreds of them in the last few months. Many of them are anxious to get back into what they call the flying game. They want to get into civil aviation; they are joining these light aeroplane clubs so as to refresh their skill. Many are doing it from patriotic motives; they wish to pass on their knowledge of areronautics to the rising generation, and if the Canadian airmen are given the opportunity by our different governments, and by our municipalities and by the Canadian business men, these Canadian pilots can earn for Canada just as enviable a position in peace as they did in war.

Now I ask you that if you think the League has a useful work to do, if you think that the development of aviation is a good thing for our country, I ask you to join and lend your support anyway to the fullest development of this League. Assist this League in every way you can, because we are going to try to get in it all those with a knowledge of aviation, all those who want to learn about it, and all those who think its development will be for the good of our country and our Empire. Its influence and the good it can do will depend naturally upon the number of people we can draw into it and the amount of money we can get to work with, and I bespeak your support for it. I think you, Mr. President and gentlemen, for your very patient hearing and for the invitation which brought me here today. (Applause).

THE PRESIDENT gave some further information as to the incorporation of the League.

GENERAL GUNN expressed to the speaker the thanks of the Club, and MR. F. B. FETHERSTONHAUGH in seconding the motion, referred to the fact that he had been president in 1912 of the first Aeronautical Society in Canada.

EUROPE AND THE BRITISH EMPIRE

An Address by PROFESSOR W. CALDWELL, D.Sc., Montreal

(*Links of Empire Series*)

1st December, 1927

The chair was occupied by Mr. Robert Fennell, Vice-President of the Club; and the speaker was enthusiastically received. He spoke as follows:—I thank you sincerely for your kind reception and welcome. I indeed appreciate the honor, and of course the responsibility, of speaking before the Empire Club of Canada. I can only give myself to you, gentlemen. I frankly respond to your welcome by acknowledging that it has been my privilege for each of the last six or seven years to have been for some months, and once a whole year, in Europe, in England, London and so on, and got really in touch with things, and I have had exceptional opportunities and privileges in getting to know important movements and men in central Europe.

I was asked by the Polish authorities to lecture in Warsaw in July on Canada. The proposal was at once a glad recognition by the Polish Government of Canada's Confederation Jubilee and an expression of the practical interest of Poland in Canada from the immigration point of view. I was much impressed by what a broadminded Polish diplomat said to me at the close of my first lecture. I had been endeavouring to work out some sort of connection between British liberty as seen from the point of view of the Dominions and Polish liberty as seen by the European point of view. They were very much interested in those two things, and they certainly believe in Polish liberty as a very important thing socially in view of the past of Prussia and the present of Russia. This gentleman, a prominent man, said to me that the Dominions should take an interest for themselves in all these central European questions, because there is always the danger, imagine a Pole saying that, there was always the danger of the Dominions being to some extent misled by British idealism. British idealists, he thought were always inclined to gloss over difficulties in Europe.

Here, verily, was something for a British-Canadian professor of philosophy to think about, especially one who like myself was trained in the school of British German idealism. Now I will yield to no man in my sense of the great gift of England, of Britain, to the world, namely the doctrine of personal liberty. But it is true that that doctrine of personal liberty has had to be corrected in view of the needs of an equally important thing, organization. British liberty has in England to be connected with organization from the labor point of view; and British liberty has had to be worked out from the point of view of organization in the Empire from the political view point; and British liberty, if it is to be applied to Europe, needs to be considered along with such things as the balance of power, and the part that Britain has to play, and must play in the Europe of today.

I said I was deeply impressed by that remark about the Dominions being possibly deceived by British idealism. Knowing what that idealism is, knowing Britain, being a Briton trained over there, and knowing something about Germany and German idealism, I think I know the limits of this tradition, British, semi-German idealism. I studied a long time in Germany. I cannot say with Lord Haldane that Germany is my spiritual home, because I think I have learned, through the help of the war of course, and in other ways, the real value of German intellectualism. I think our English education to some extent was on the wrong lines, in trusting too much to the mere development of the intelligence, and intellectualism. The war happened because with all our education and our idealism we were not really organized, we were not properly organized for peace, and the war showed the breakdown of some of our traditional idealistic conceptions. I am not going to go into the causes of the war, but I do think the liberal culture of England, this idealism of Free Trade and general progress, the thought that with a great belief in mere intellectual education we would come out all right, the war and the breakdown of our traditional liberalism show me that to some extent a new culture is needed today, a culture that shall give better recognition to the needs and the emotions of the individual, and the place that nationality and nationalism still occupies in the world. A new culture is needed, and I think we have learned that from the war and its lessons.

I want to connect that Warsaw remark with another remark made to me in June 1925, by President Masaryk of Czechoslovakia, whom I have the honor to call a friend. I had been telling him of my intention to go up into Poland after my Prague lectures and he spoke of "the necessity of a strong and independent Poland for the peace of Europe," and of the need of us Britishers getting rid of much of our traditional insularity and aloofness in regard to Central European affairs, and particularly those on the eastern front of Germany. "Britain," he said, "ought certainly to take an interest in the carrying through of the Locarno proposals. The British people could lose their Empire in Europe unless they are all very careful about acting together. It is all very well to say: 'We have an Empire.' But an England that is weak or defeated in Europe would mean the loss of the Empire before the Canadians and the Australians could get over to help you." I happen to know a good deal about the Locarno arrangements that led to Germany coming into the League of Nations. I had the privilege of seeing Germany enter the League of Nations in 1925, the greatest political meeting I suppose I ever attended in my life. I had been asked to travel with the Polish delegates from Warsaw to Geneva, right through Austria and so on. I knew their point of view. I was anxious that Poland should have a seat in the League of Nations, and I said so to Sir Austen Chamberlain in his hotel. I was very anxious that the word of the British should be kept and that Poland should get their seat. Chamberlain said he thought they would.

I said, if trouble is to come in Europe, it is more apt to come on the east of Germany than on the west. Thank God for that agreement between France and Germany never to fight, and I am thankful to God for the treaties between France and Poland and Czechoslovakia, that if Czechoslovakia is unjustifiably attacked that France will help. I am glad to say I do not think there can be a war for many years, and I do not think Germany will attack Poland without the very strongest reasons. She has said she will arbitrate, and she wants to arbitrate about the corridor and so on. I was tremendously impressed by Streseman's words that a new era has come, that the Great Architect has made nations so that we can all live our nationalities, but the brotherhood of nations is greater still. I think myself honestly that Germany is in a fair way to co-operate. There are still nationalists in Germany, but she is in a fair way to co-operate with the rest of Europe in regard to peace and arbitration. That makes me more anxious, in spite of these recent rumors, for England and the Dominions to do all they can in the way of insuring the peace of Europe. I had a talk with Dr. Benes, the Foreign Minister of Czechoslovakia last August in Prague, and he mentioned the same thing to me. There are dangers in regard to certain places; one of the danger spots is Lithuania, another is Hungary, and there are other dangers. There are dangers of small explosions in Europe, and that makes it all the more important for the big powers and Britain and the Dominions to stand together in regard to arbitration and security and disarmament.

It is only two months now since I went last August, in company with a Polish officer and his men to the barbed wire gate on the three-feet-wide neutral boundary between Poland and Bolshevist Russia. I lectured on Canada in Poland; I had been there three times previously, and they asked me if I would like to see some things, and I said I would like to see the frontier. I went to a town in Eastern Volhynia, and two or three miles out of it to a blockhouse, where I saw the whole system of guarding the six or seven hundred miles of Poland against incursions of Bolshevism. I now know better than ever I did how extremely important it is for my fellow-countrymen of Britain and the Dominions to apprehend the reality and the value to our common cause of peace in the New Europe that has actually come out of the war. I saw there on that Polish-Russian frontier (for we could see Bolshevists over there in the wood opposite us) all that my mind had been full of since I learned in Warsaw in 1925 of the arresting of the Reds there. That was a wonderful story, how Poland arrested Bolshevism in 1920 near Warsaw. I realized how important is the defence that is still going on, for Poland is still daily and nightly protecting Europe from the dangers of any further advance of the world-revolution tactics of Bolshevist Russia. I saw how important this protection was, this series of blockhouses along that long front. The best officers and soldiers of the Polish army are serving there. They do not attack unless they are attacked, but they have things so perfectly controlled that no Bolshevist can come into Poland, nor can any undermining propaganda, bribing of newspapers, etc. come in. In that same town, I saw at three o'clock in the afternoon, some Russians actually allowed to come into this town to make purchases, but they had to be back in Russia before six or seven in the evening. They are allowed to come in; they go to a storehouse where goods are exposed—boots, shoes, etc.; they have to bring dollars or roubles, actual cash, take it to the bank, get a receipt for it, and cash that receipt in commodities, and then go home over the border.

Poland has suffered terribly. Sometimes Polish officers and soldiers have been dragged over the border and killed, but so rigid has Poland been that nothing further has occurred for some months, and Poland is now guarding Europe from the dangers of Bolshevist incursion. (Applause). I learned incidentally that the test on the common soldier is very very great. He may be offered bribes, he is offered pamphlets, and ideas, and he must be a man of character and sufficient knowledge of what Bolshevism is and what Poland is, to resist all these temptations. These men are educated every morning at school, talked to about economic and social questions, they have religious talks, and it is a religious and ethical duty, they feel, that they are discharging in guarding Europe. Poland is simply forced from actual experience and from her knowledge of what is going on in Russia close to her own border to keep her country as intact as she can from the Bolshevist menace. At the same time it is all to the good of the world that she is doing what she is doing. For as Tchitcherin said some two years ago, Russia cannot get at Europe save through Poland, and no one can hurt Russia save through Poland.

I am saying all this out of the fullest sympathy for the Russian people, and the extent to which they have been victims of so much tyrrany and so much autocracy both in the past and in the present. But things are changing in Russia, although they will probably become more dreadful still before they get better.

I am anxious to point out to my fellow-Britishers every where the reality of the new Poland. There is the fact of its constructive influence against both Bolshevism and any future Pan Germanism, any future desire of Germany to go to the east, to Lithuania, for instance, over or through Poland. The important thing to remember about Poland is that she has no hate against either Russia or Prussia, however criminally or unfairly they have both treated her in the past. Poland is a great believer in getting rid of the whole war mentality, and this is a thing that makes her of value to the world today. Poland thinks that the development of economic and social relations with Germany is the best way to put an end to political and national antagonism. Then she knows that she must trade with the Russia of tomorrow, and Russia must be kept open to all the nations of the world.

Along with the new Poland, or even before it (for the Czechs declared their independence before the armistice) there is the wonderful new country of Czechoslovakia. It is made up of old Bohemia and Moravia formerly under Austria, and old Slovakia, that suffered so bitterly under Hungary. And with Czechoslovakia, the two other countries of the Little Entente—Yugoslavia and Rumania—are united for peace and progress. I was in Slovakia last summer when Rothermere wrote those letters that Hungary had been unfairly treated, and the only effect of the letters was to stir up a greater loyalty on the part of Slovakia to the new republic, and a greater conviction on the part of the Slovaks to retain their position in the modern Czechoslovakia. What Poland and Czechoslovakia can together do to prepare the way for a United States of Europe, when the two generations that have known the war shall have passed away, is of the utmost importance. It is for them to lead and to keep together the eighty to a hundred millions of new free peoples, chiefly Slavs, between the Baltic and the Black Sea. These peoples are all for peace and for progressive social development. It is gratifying to note that Central European newspapers have recently been speaking of the many efforts at an increasing rapprochement between Poland and Czechoslovakia.

In the national history of both Poland and Czechoslovakia there has been at work a kind of religious emancipation philosophy, a "Messianism" as it is called, a belief that they have both had to live and die and rise again, as it were, for the benefit of mankind as well as of themselves. The old Russia, by the way, had a similar Messianic belief before the war about what she could do for the good of the nations. And it is a pity that for the time being she has been forced to suppress her soul for an economic materialism that is the death of all civilization. (Applause).

I bring back then to Britain and the Dominions a message and an assurance that in spite of the menacing talk about the next war, there are in Central Europe about a hundred millions of free peoples whose continued existence and whose will to peace and true democracy depends on the maintenance of the status quo in Europe, brought about by the peace conditions of Locarno. And this maintenance I wish to point out is also dependent upon the interest taken by Great Britain and the Dominions in this status quo, and the League of Nations, which is its chief supporter.

I did not go to these countries out of mere curiosity I was asked to an important conference for the reaffirmation of the world's moral ideal in Caxton Hall in 1922 and from what I heard I made up my mind that I would see Prague, that new centre of Europe. I knew the history of Bohemia and John Huss, in connection with our own Wycliffe in England; I knew that one million people had left the Roman Catholic Church in Czechoslovakia, in the interests not of breaking away, but of founding simply a national Catholic Church. And I had heard about President Masaryk. It was arranged that I should talk to the students in Prague, and in that way I was sent all over the country and saw all the important things there. I know the importance of the new republic of Czechoslovakia, and now recently the new republic of the restored Poland, to the peace of Europe and the conservation of the British Empire. It is very important to Britain and her holdings in India, Iraq, and Palestine. The Empire is far safer with a strong Poland between Russia and Germany, that it would be without a Poland. In guarding the British Empire life, if it is to be conserved, it is very important that we should do all we can to strengthen this new force that is at work in Central Europe for the new order of things.

Now, gentlemen, what has Canada to do with all this? I am a Canadian; I have been more than twenty years in McGill; I am proud to be a Canadian, and I am anxious to think of what our own country has to do with this. I want to avoid no difficulty; I know perfectly well a great many people think we have comparatively little to do with what is going on overseas, and I know of the autonomy movements in the Dominions. I know what some people in the Dominions are alleged to feel in regard to Locarno and peace and arbitration and guarantees. And yet we all know that Canada recently acquired a seat on the Council of the League of Nations. We know how honorable the work of Canada has been in the League from the very beginning, and the good impression the Canadians have made there. (Applause). And there is much to be done in which Canada can effectively take part. There is a big movement; I believe we must go as far as we can with arbitration and that very difficult thing called disarmament. A good many people doubtless are still indifferent to the League here and perhaps in Britain. Of course it is entirely wrong to say that Britain might as well give up the League now and concentrate on the Empire. It is impossible to do that, in view of the fact that Canada was put on the Council. Britain refused to sign the Hague optional clause about compulsory arbitration; she could not commit herself owing to the fear of guarantees. Senator Dandurand has said it is possible that Canada might consider the signing of that clause under certain conditions. As to the alleged indifference of Great Britain to the League, the action of Canada in going on the League is an answer, and the words of Dandurand in saying Canadians might still be willing to sign the clause is an answer. I think there is a reaction in Great Britain now, in view of the terrible necessities of England, for going as far as possible in the matter of arbitration and disarmament among the nations. I know the League decisions have no binding force on the countries represented there; they are only recommendations, but the League is becoming every day more and more powerful. I have studied philanthropy in connection with social philosophy. The League stands at the very top of all the social reform and social philosophy of the last thirty or forty years. If the menace of the possible destruction of human life on a large scale, the crippling of men and boys for years, is not removed from humanity, what is the good of all our education and of our progress? (Applause). Bertrand Russell said in Montreal that if the financiers of the world held together they could stop any threat of war. They certainly could. But they don't. But instead of the force of money or the force of arms, being behind the League, we must get a greater force, the moral outlawry of war by the civilized world. The League is already a moral force of the greatest value. There is no power in the world today that is big enough or strong enough or vain enough or foolish enough to think she could go ahead in international dispute without the opinion of the League. The opinion of the League against any contemplated war movement would actually kill it at present, and nobody would go ahead in face of an adverse League decision. TheLeague is the outcome of the work of years and it is of the greatest importance that we Canadians, we British people, ought to do all we can to strengthen it at the present moment in the matter of the peace of Europe and the east. I know Germany said she will arbitrate, to be sure. But in view of dangerous clashings about Lithuania it is possible there might be friction there, and we must do all we can. We are not asked to guarantee to fight if Germany attacks Poland; we are not asked to fight at once at all, but we can now say that we respect and believe in the efforts on the east of Germany towards peace, and that we are morally supporting it through the League, and that is of great importance.

Now we know that Canada was put on the council partly, of course, on account of her great record in Europe. Canada has a great name and a great chance at the present moment. She is regarded as a possible interpreter between the two great branches of the English speaking race; though probably no nation wishes to be, or indeed can really be interpreted by another nation, for each has its own distinctive characteristics. President Masaryk remarked to me once: "I believe in the future United States of Europe, but I could not help saying to myself, when visiting America, a strange thing: here are two great English-speaking peoples; why, after all, could not these two people sunite and form a great dominion." I said, "I appreciate what you say, but the fundamental difference between Great Britain and the United States is that we do not practice the 'melting pot' theory; we do not try to turn out a homogeneous product; the British Empire exists for the development of a great many communities. We have French-Canada in Canada, we have South Africa, and so on, and they are all working out along the lines of British liberty the continuation of the principles of self-government. If we are going to take away the monarchy, the Empire would go to pieces." He said, "I think you are right." And the Queen of Roumania, when she was here, felt the difference between the people on either side of the boundary line. I have American friends who appreciate the fact of another civilization different from theirs along their border line. We have a value in our traditions, in our present, for problems in the League and in the Empire just because we are where we are. The British Empire is a type of civilization, rather than an Empire, and may be stated as a common way of thinking about liberty and constitutional government and the development of the lives of less civilized peoples. It is a common way of thinking about personal liberty, about constitutional government, about rights and duties, liberty and co-operation and world service. The Empire is clearly confronted with the duty of serving the world now, not merely holding on. And Britain to be strong in the Dominions, must be strong in Europe. The Empire, to have the respect of the world, must be actually doing something to bring about a better order of things. Roumania has many of the ideals of freedom, the ideals you find so deeply rooted in the British character; and the present century may witness an expansion of Anglo-Saxon culture, just as the 18th century saw the downfall of French domination, and as the Germans thought the 19th century would see the enthronement of German culture. Every nation, I believe, has a spiritual mission, both for herself and for what she can give to the common life of the world.

I close by asking you to think of what Canadians can do in maintaining what is good and true in Anglo-Saxon ideals, and in the principles of western civilization. I believe that Canada can lead, and I think that she can exercise a stabilizing influence within the British Empire, in the development of freedom, and therefore a stabilizing influence in the new Central Europe and the League and the new nations that have come out of the war. We are witnessing a great emancipation today of the workers and the peasants, and many who have been under, and there is a great war still coming between the forces that tend to build up civilization and the forces that tend to break it down, and it seems to me that Canada has a great role to play in conserving for herself and for the world the truth and ideals of British freedom, and the new doctrine of co-operation within the Empire, and the co-operation of the nations. Where is the intellectual supremacy of the world now? We owe our religion, our culture, our universities, our institutions, to the Old World. Some people say that that supremacy is passing slowly from Europe. Whither? To the United States, to Canada—to this continent? Westward the course of empire certainly takes its way. I do not think there can be any intellectual supremacy to a single nation, any more than in the sense that Greece once was supreme, that Rome was supreme; that Shakespeare's England exercised, that British trade once exercised. The supremacy must be in the co-operation of moral sense, the unanimity of the peoples in the spirit of the League of Nations, to get together to save the life of Europe and the life of the world. (Applause).

A vote of thanks to the speaker was moved by MR. HECTOR CHARLESWORTH.

NORTHERN ONTARIO

AN ADDRESS BY HON. WM. FINLAYSON, K.C. M.P.P., MINISTER OF LANDS AND FORESTS FOR ONTARIO

(*Links of Empire Series*)

8th December, 1927.

The Vice-President introduced the speaker, who was received with loud applause. He said:—It is a pleasure to come to Southern Ontario and talk about Northern Ontario, because the people here are prepared to support any legislation properly designed to develop the North country; yet I do so with a good deal of hesitation, because I see so many people here who have done far more work in Northern Ontario than I have been able to accomplish. I see here Sir William Hearst, who knows Northern Ontario not only from the administrative standpoint, but from having lived there and helped to develop one of its important centres. (Applause). Other men here have done perservering and effective work for the north country, men like Mr. Stapells and Mr. Gibbons, who are prepared to devote not only personal energy but business organization to assist in particular enterprises we may have in view up there.

The people of Toronto and all Southern Ontario think that civilization entered Ontario from the south, and that Cataraqui and Kingston are the oldest centres of civilization in this province; others say that Niagara was the birthplace of Ontario; while people in Toronto—the "Meeting Place"—seem to think that civilization and romance and enterprise began here and spread through the province. But I would like to tell the people of Toronto at once, plainly and somewhat bluntly, that those ideas are all erroneous, and that the north, which is not only the source of present wealth but the hope for the future of Ontario, is the place where civilization and enterprise and business entered this province. Let me briefly prove this proposition.

Civilization entered Ontario in August 1615, when Father Recollet went up the Ottawa River, crossed Nipissing, and came down the French River and Georgian Bay. He was followed shortly after by the great Champlain. The first religious service was performed that year on the Georgian Bay. Following that, there was the Recollet Mission to the Huron Indians for a few years—a feeble mission, because that Order was not strong enough to conduct a great mission so far from their base, and they asked the Jesuits to come. The latter were a powerful Order, which had the royal support at the time, and they conducted their mission to the Hurons until 1639. That was the time when civilization really entered Ontario, because the Jesuits had a great central station at Ste. Marie, on the Georgian Bay, and between 1639 and 1649 there was established the first town, the first hospital, the first school, the first farm, the first military establishment, and the first organized society in this province.

In 1649 the Jesuits were so well established that they could have carried on indefinitely, but the Hurons were driven out by their enemies, the Iroquois from New York State, and they retired to Christian Island for one year, and then they were driven out of Ontario, and the Jesuits followed them.

Then in 1670 we had civilization coming from the north, because in that year Charles the Second granted the Great Charter to "My right trusty and well-beloved cousin, Prince Rupert," and seventeen noblemen. It always amuses me to read that Charter to Prince Rupert, and then four or five noblemen, several barons, several knights, and four or five gentlemen who were entitled to be called "Esquire," and one poor man—John Portmain, merchant goldsmith of the City of London—the only one who was not a gentleman, and who could not put esquire to his name. The Hudson's Bay Company a few years afterwards began to sell their pelts, and they were sold through John Portmain. Prince Rupert was pushing the company, and he had the spectacular part of the enterprise, but John Portmain was evidently getting a commission on the sales, and the industrious John was no doubt making money, and a few years later he was entitled to join the glittering band who headed the Hudson's Bay Company.

That was the first real business in Ontario, for that company had authority to attack the King's enemies, and to carry on war with all non-Christian people—whatever that might mean. They were the first land company in Ontario; their territory including everything from the Hudson Bay Straits practically in every direction. They were the first company that had a subvention in Ontario; they had a Charter entitling them to catch all fishes, even the royal sturgeon; they also had a right to get furs, and to carry on extensive business. That first business enterprise in Ontario came from the north, and it has been carried on for 260 years. I do not think you could have any greater evidence of the vitality of the north than that.

In fact, the north showed the south how to do business, and the vigorous enterprises of the north have always assisted the south. I think I have said enough to convince Southern Ontario that the north is the source of civilization, of business, and also of every form of attractive enterprise you have. We are the hope of the future of the province (Applause). You will find that the big orders sent to the firms in Toronto, Hamilton, Peterboro, Galt and other places in the south are from Northern Ontario; the large orders that come from Southern Ontario to wholesale houses are from exceptional towns like Oshawa and Windsor, or where there are different circumstances. Southern Ontario—smaller Ontario— is going on in a small, regular, methodical way; but the hope of future growth is in the north. I am sure that the proposed trip of the Toronto Board of Trade to the North-western part of Ontario will have a steadying and beneficial effect on that section of the province. Today we are drawing your attention to the country north of North Bay, up to James Bay and the centre of the Hudson's Bay Company.

This year we have opened up the Ferguson Highway, and although it is not yet perfect I trust that those who go over it this summer will find it perhaps the most attractive road in Eastern America. Through Muskoka and Parry Sound old difficulties will be removed. On leaving North Bay you travel for 50 or 60 miles through Crown Lands, where everything is in the King's name, and you will find a 66-foot road cut out of virgin timber. As I went through there last June, before the road was opened, I was very much alarmed at the fire-hazard, for we were going to allow the public to travel through that wonderful stand of timber in the Timagami Reserve, and the timber contributory to the road alone was valued by an expert at between $40,000,000 and $50,000,000 without reckoning one of the three remaining great stands of white pine in the world, to say nothing of the unequalled series of lakes, for I think Timagami is the finest lake in America. I would recommend those of you who have not seen that lake and the beautiful country to motor through Timagami reservation; it is one of the finest sights of the world, to see the magnificent standing timber and the beautiful lakes skirting the road. After leaving North Bay you will travel 50 or 60 miles before you get gasoline or service of any kind. Our foresters stand at the south end, and in order to get a permit you must tell who you are and how long you are going to be there, and at every five miles of the road we have established camps with a fire-ranger in attendance, and you will see one of the sights of the world. We look for an enormous traffic this summer right up through the Cobalt country and gold belts, north to Cochrane.

That road to Cochrane, when completed, will have cost the province $3,000,000. Up to date Ontario has spent in Temiskaming and Northern Ontario, $35,000,000 and it has never produced a dividend until last year, when we got back $1,000,000, and this year we are getting $1,300,000, so that now they are practically taking care of their annual charges (Applause).

But some one in Southern Ontario will say to me, "You have spent $3,000,000 on the road up to Cochrane, and now you are paralleling it with a Highway costing $3,000,000, though it never paid a cent." But let me tell some things we have, as a province, by way of return for that investment. I might refer to the development of the Cobalt mines, due to the construction of that road, but let me give you a few samples farther north. The province spent $120,000 for two successive roads from Swastika to Kirkland Lake. We spent a little over $175,000 on the railway to the same point. Someone may object that the Highway and the Railway will compete with each other; but look at your newspaper this morning, and add up the market values of the five or six producing mines at Kirkland Lake, and you find that those mines are selling today at $150,000,000. In other words, the Province of Ontario invested half a million dollars, and produced $150,000,000 in the market value of those mines (Applause).

But in addition to that we created a town of 4,000 people, with an assessment of over two million dollars; and that town is putting in every municipal enterprise that is going into Southern Ontario. We have there what I think is the most spectacular camp in the world, not as large as Timmins, or on as large a scale as Hollinger, with its 60 miles of underground railway. When I see the muddy water going over the reel at Hollinger Mine, and hear that it is producing gold, I think it is enormous; but when you go to Kirkland Lake and see the ore coming out you can follow the process, and know what is going on.

Kirkland is a very pretty lake, and the situation of the property is very beautiful, and many of the mines are showing great enterprise in putting up handsome buildings. Last winter, on one of the coldest days, Mr. Stapells and Mr. Gibbons and I saw 300 or 400 ripe tomatoes on the vines in a large conservatory there. We saw bunkhouses of up-to-date tile construction, with all modern conveniences. If the Government investment in that road had produced nothing but the Kirkland Lake development it would have had a rich return, and been well justified (Applause).

I will not touch upon Timmins, a city of 15,000, with every modern convenience, where the mines are even richer and the total even greater; but go from Porquis Junction to Iroquois Falls. Representatives of the Australian Government were here a month ago and were shown the developments in Northern Ontario and also the sights in Toronto, and after their visit one of them said, "We have large mines in Australia; the Toronto development is interesting, but we have bigger cities than you have; your agricultural development is interesting, and I was tremendously pleased with the colour of your maples; I was interested in seeing snow for the first time in my life; but what impressed me most was the Hart House in Toronto and the developments at Iroquois Falls (Applause).

By the recent amalgamation with the Spanish River Company there is now an investment of $40,000,000 in that one enterprise at Iroquois Falls. Day in and day out, a solid train of 25 cars loaded with paper goes from that one town to the American market. It is very satisfactory for us to know that the development through Northern Ontario and Northern Quebec has produced the astonishing result that the Canadian dollar is the only unit of currency in the whole world that is above par in New York (Applause). We are all pleased to see the pound sterling come up to parity, but I was delighted not long ago in Cleveland when I cashed a cheque and received 35 cents by way of premiums on it (Laughter and applause). Northern Ontario and Northern Quebec have been the greatest factors in giving us that favourable balance of trade, which means that every merchant in Toronto and every purchaser in Canada can buy at par, and ignore the trouble we had during and following the war, of providing for five of six or eight per cent. discount.

The Australian was interested in Iroquois Falls because the Paper Company owns the whole town; they have made the streets and the municipality, and the stores, and they were good enough to rent premises to Dr. Monteith for his liquor store, to make some revenue.

The company are working out the whole development there. The Town Council is elected by the employees, who live in the company's houses, and they work in harmony with the company. A very successful experiment is being carried out there in what people used to call a "tied town," but we prefer to call it the new Municipal development. The Company say, "We have taken people so far north into the wilderness that we want to see them living under good conditions; we want to give them every facility to be happy here, to educate their families in good schools, to have good hospitals, a golf course and tennis courts." I think the Company last year paid for sports $30,000. The Iroquois Falls Hockey Team dropped into the finals last year, and this year they are going to win (Applause).

This very interesting experiment that has not been successful in most places, is going on very successfully in Northern Ontario, and it has given the company a bond of sympathy with their employees which has enabled them to attract the best graduates in the world in every branch—hydraulic or mining engineers, foresters etc., from Toronto and other university centres, who have moved up there and live in good houses with modern conveniences, and are happy and comfortable. I think that company is entitled to a great deal of credit for that enterprise. Do you know any place in Southern Ontario where such an enterprise is being successfully carried on?

Then go on to Kapuskasing, which is within 200 miles of Hudson Bay. Into that one investment the sum of $30,000,000 has been put. I would not like to charge my memory with the exact amounts that are going into the great hotel, the immense club house, the large hospital. Everything is being done on an immense scale. They did not buy the whole town, because some of it had been already sold, but they are making liberal grants to secure modern comforts for the people up there, for their engineers and employees, and all kinds will be treated in the same way. I draw attention to those companies because, while it may be admitted they are making money, they are not neglecting the interests of

Northern Ontario, but are making liberal grants for the amelioration of conditions in their own localities, which is something that has not been done very largely in Southern Ontario.

Now, what are we doing as a Government for Northern Ontario? Last year we spent on Highways $10,000,000 here in Southern Ontario and $5,000,000 in Northern Ontario. We are trying to do it intelligently. We can do things in Northern Ontario that you never hear of in Southern Ontario; the conditions are abnormal, and you cannot lay down a mathematical rule, as is done here. For example, Kirkland Lake wants a concrete road to Swastika, and we get an estimate of $250,000, and I sat down the other day and proposed that we split the cost three ways—the mining company to pay one-third, the municipality to pay one-third, and the Government one-third. Or suppose a bridge falls down; the pulp company say, "We will put up one-half." My friend Dr. Monteith thinks I am an awful man because I get a vote of $5,000,000 and go ahead and spend it, and then want another $5,000,000. In Southern Ontario you don't do that; you must have estimates and appropriations and votes. If you want to build a chicken house at the Provincial Farm at Guelph you have to put it in the estimates and vote an appropriation in the Legislature.

What I want to convince you people is that Ontario never spent money to greater advantage than it is doing at present (Applause). We have to take a chance on this, and a gamble on something else. We spent half a million and produced Kirkland Lake; we spent some money in another place and drew a blank; that is the gambling we have to do, but we have been fairly successful. Our big gamble was the T. & N. O. which cost $35,000,000, but is producing hundreds of millions, and bringing wealth to the City of Toronto in particular.

One other thing we are doing in Northern Ontario which will perhaps interest you. We are trying to sit down with those pulp companies and avoid a repetition of our failures in lumber in Southern Ontario. I do not mean that the lumber men made the failure, but the province as a whole has done so. We have been telling the lumbermen, "You can go in and cut that timber and get your money out, and you can let fire go through, or anything you like." We have been the ones to blame for that, not the lumber companies, but now we are sitting down with the lumber companies and saying, "The investment in paper and pulp is so enormous that something must be done to perpetuate it, and not repeat our mistakes made with the lumber trade." We find the paper people have such an enormous investment that they are willing to do anything to make their industry perpetual; and we tell them they will have to carry on their operations under a forester who will work on the theory that at the end of 40 years, when they have finished with the enormous limits we have given them, the original stand will perhaps have re-grown. We have not proved that theory to be correct; time alone will do that; but we are going to supplement that in another way. We are going to ask the Legislature to spend money in an enormous nursery plant in Northern Ontario so that we will be able to supply the pulp companies with spruce trees which they will plant in the forest, and pay us only a nominal charge for them, in the hope that we will be able to develop that plan, and in 35 or 40 years they will be able to reap and we will be able to get returns out of it.

On those enormous limits which they have—3,000 and some 4,000—the average stand of trees will not be more than 5 cords to the acre, for we have to remember that a great part of it is water and muskeg, and cold with a northern exposure. On good lands we can get 35 to 40 cords per acre, and we hope to get those high yields. We are also planning to take our share in an investigation with a view of producing a hybrid between spruce and poplar that will have the rapid growing qualities of the poplar and the finer grain qualities of the spruce. Our experiments have met with encouraging success, and if we can produce a hybrid that will in 35 years develop a value for pulp purposes we will have accomplished a great deal (Applause).

Woods that we regarded as weed woods a few years ago are becoming enormously valuable. Up to 25 years ago, when we sold our first spruce, it was not of any value. The poplar was called a weed wood, absolutely useless. Now we are scouring Ontario to find where we can get a reservation of 50 miles in order to develop the poplar; and we believe that we are going to drive the Japanese out of the silk market by the production of celanese from pulp.

Now, one of the great aids to such development is the fire service. I need not give figures of the enormous losses from year to year from fire, but the truth is that every year for the last hundred years we have been in the timber business, twice as much has been lost by fire as has been sold. My friend and predecessor, Hon. Mr. Lyons, has largely to be credited with the organization of the service of the fire brigade who are fighting fires among the timber. One of the interesting things is that we are able to utilize in that force possessing the experience and personnel of what was the Royal Flying Corps that has many of the best men in the world, who are now doing in Northern Ontario the same work that they did for the King in France, and are producing results that have cut our fire losses down from 2,123,000 acres in 1923 to 60,000 acres last year, and when the figures are completed it will be found that we have lost only about 30,000 acres this year (Applause).

The strange and sad feature in connection with that is that notwithstanding all our propaganda, all our lectures, all our talks and pamphlets, and our "Save the Forest" week, we are not doing very much with the human element. The Canadian is just as independent, and claims just the same right to throw away his match and his cigar stub, as before, and we cannot teach him to do anything different; because in 1923, when we lost 2,123,000 acres, we had 1,300 fires, and last year, when it was down to 60,000 acres, we had 1,200 fires; but the difference is that when fires start we are able to locate and put them out.

In order to support the industries of the North we have to develop our roads, and particularly our waterpowers, because I have this simple faith, that wherever Providence put a waterpower, no matter how remote or how difficult to develop, the same All-seeing and Providing Power placed some great natural resource that was intended to be developed by that power. If you find 30,000 horse power going over a rock here, if you will hold it for the people, and not give it to be exploited by some profiteer, then if you look around you will find a great natural resource that was intended to be developed by that power. We are asking the people to allow us to spend more money to develop our system of fire protection. We spent $1,200,000 this year; we are willing to spend more.

We ask you to be prepared for restrictive legislation, such as they have in Sweden, which prevents men from cutting timber on their own land. We want such a state of opinion as will be receptive of legislation that will be restrictive, that will be irksome to some millionaires and to some speculators, to some people who play the market, but that is good for the people of Ontario. I believe the people are sufficiently far-sighted to allow us to gradually bring on that legislation from time to time. I would ask the people of Toronto, especially the members of the Empire Club—whose object is to build up Ontario as our part of the Empire—to use their influence to enable us gradually to change our system and bring it up to some of the advanced legislation in Europe in respect to these great natural resources. We may not reap the benefit in my day or yours, but the King's Government will go on, and Ontario will continue and be an increasingly important part of the Empire; and if your Club will lend its assistance, perhaps the few disjointed remarks I have made will not be in vain (Loud applause).

The thanks of the Club were voiced by the HON. DR. MONTEITH, Provincial Treasurer.

LINKS OF EMPIRE

THE HONOURABLE JOHN S. MARTIN, B.A., M.P.P.,
MINISTER OF AGRICULTURE FOR ONTARIO.

(Links of Empire Series)

January 12th, 1928

COLONEL ALEXANDER FRASER, President, introduced the speaker.

HON. MR. MARTIN was received with applause, and said : It is indeed an honour to be invited to appear before this distinguished body for a second time within a few years. May I confess that your gallant President not only extended to me an invitation but told me what to talk about. At least he suggested that something on the Empire, from which this Club gets its name and to which it is rendering such a marked service, might be appropriate for the occasion of the final meeting of the Club. I readily agreed with the suggestion. As a matter of fact we have rather become accustomed to agreeing with the suggestions of Colonel Fraser, as his suggestions so often can scarcely be distinguished from commands. It did seem fitting, however, that after a year in which you have given your interest and attention to a wide range of subjects that you should come back for a few moments to consider the one big overshadowing subject of all. The matter, however, did not seem quite as simple as at first thought. With fourteen and a half million square miles and four hundred and sixty million population, the Empire is a subject of vast range, of many sides, of great comprehensiveness; so, to reduce the matter to a few brief understandable points, I have decided to confine myself to some of those factors which in ancient and modern times have served as links of

Empire. It has seemed to me that these may be summed up in three words :

SCIENCE, SETTLEMENT, SENTIMENT.

Under these three simple heads we will all readily place some of the big factors which in years gone by, as well as at the present time, have served to strengthen the ties of Empire.

SCIENCE.

Let us then first consider Science. This opens a wide range of thought and achievement.

In the realm of transportation and communication Science has, perhaps, made its most important contributions to Empire building. The vast advances which have been made within even our memory in the facilities for spanning the ocean, have in themselves been a most important achievement. The lessening of space is of the greatest importance both in regard to human travel and in regard to the handling and transportation of commodities of trade. Then as regards communication, the laying of the ocean cable, and more recently the extension of the really wonderful development of wireless communication, have comparatively annihilated space, and linked people together in thought and in commerce as never before.

There is now coming a new application of science on an Empire basis, and that is with reference to the development of our natural resources. Not long ago, as you are no doubt aware, there was organized in London what is known as The Empire Marketing Board. Last summer I received a letter from this Board suggesting an arrangement in our respective organizations for carrying on scientific research on problems which underlie the successful marketing of our products. This Board has for its object the promotion of the consumption of Empire goods in the British market as against goods produced outside the Empire. There is a vast scope for development along this line, and hence the importance of utilizing every possible facility. In response to this invitation, therefore, I arranged to send one of the professors of the Ontario Agricultural College, who spent several weeks in close consultation with the experts of the Board in considering problems of mutual interest, on which some co-operative work might be undertaken. As a result of this preliminary discussion I have just recently completed an agreement for starting the first co-operative project of this nature. It concerns the improvement of our poultry commodities. It has been noted that in the hatching of eggs, 20% of the embryos die or fail to hatch, and there has been no definite explanation of the cause of this wastage. This, therefore, is the basis of the first co-operative work which is to be carried on, and the problem has been briefly stated in our agreement in the following words :

"To make a careful study of the quality in eggs to determine the effect of such quality on the next generation of fowls and to ascertain the effect of the diet of the poultry on eggs as a human food.

To study the hatching power of fertile eggs as to the vitamin content of the eggs and also as to the mineral content of the eggs or a combination of these two factors."

I may say that in the study of the quality of eggs one of the surprising things is that eggs produced under the most hygienic conditions, where the feed is of the very finest quaity and everything is as good as can be obtained the yolk is of a pale yellow, very light and anaemic colour, while eggs produced under primitive conditions, that is, from hens that rove the barnyard, the colour of the yoke is deep yellow. The discovery of vitamins has thrown new light on our problem, and is slowly revolutionizing many of our scientific opinions. Of course the deeper colour is due to the presence of minerals, but we have found that the taste and appearance of the eggs can be materially changed by what is fed to fowls. In these days of discoveries our object is to make the eggs as nourishing as possible by supplying those elements which are necessary to the human system. This has opened up a whole world of problems. Cod liver oil may seem a peculiar article of food for hens, but on many poultry farms we consume a great deal of this, and on my own farm we have found it of great advantage in improving the hatches we have been able to obtain. The value of codliver oil is in the vitamins it contains, and so it is considered a necessary adjunct to the poultry farm, and many barrels of it are used, resulting in better hatches, with chicks that are stronger, and that make more rapid progress.

In carrying out this work it will be necessary to produce hatching eggs in large numbers, capable of producing a normal chicken at any time of the year. This obviously will have a bearing on the cost of production of poultry and its products and therefore on marketing. It is also believed that a detailed study of this problem may lead the way toward more complete information as to the cause of anaemia in human beings. This work is being started this month at the Ontario Agricultural College, our men working in close co-operation with the Marketing Board, which shares one-half of the cost.

This, of course, is only a beginning and the application of the same plan will be made to dairy problems, honey problems or any other problems which affect matters entering into Empire trade.

Not many weeks ago one of the professors from Cambridge University visited our Fruit Experimental Farm at Vineland, to confer with our Director as to certain research work which is being done in the matter of cold storage of fruit, with a view to adopting methods which can be used in the more successful transportation of the tender fruits of this Province to the British market.

The object of the methods employed is to keep the fruits in an atmosphere of carbon dioxide. The fruit, so fas as we are able to judge, makes absolutely no deterioration. We have no difficulty in the transportation of apples, but with tender fruits such as peaches there is a great deal of difficulty. We had come to believe that it is largely a matter of temperature, but if this solution is found practicable, it will revolutionize much of our fruit trade, and we will be able to put our tender fruits on the British market in first-class condition. (Applause.)

The important point I wish to stress, however, is that a real beginning is being made in these lines, and science is being utilized to solve Empire problems and therefore serves, in this respect, as a further link of Empire.

SETTLEMENT.

Let us now turn to the second link—Settlement. The transfer of population from the Motherland to outlying parts of the Empire has always served as a basic and important factor. It has, throughout the centuries, been the result of a combination of influences. The encouragement and financial support extended by the Throne and the Royal Family all down through the ages has ever found a ready response in the spirit of adventure which has been one of the outstanding characteristics of British peoples ever since Henry VII, in 1497, extended his patronage to John Cabot, the Venetian merchant of Bristol, and his son Sebastian, to embark on the then perilous journey across the Atlantic. An even more important early adventure in settlement, having regard to its subsequent influence on this country, was the Royal Charter given by King Charles in 1670, to the Hudson Bay Company. Under the leadership of Prince Rupert, this party of gentlemen adventurers came out to Canada and established an activity which, ever since and to this very day, has played a most important part in the opening up and development of this nation.

Time will not permit me to dwell on the many heroic and romantic chapters which have gone to make up the story of the settlement of British peoples in this country throughout the centuries, because I desire to refer to some modern activities along this line. We all recognize that the pioneer work which has been done, overcoming difficulties which are unknown to-day, has laid the foundations for the present development which we enjoy. Because of this, we feel that it is important to maintain the stream of British settlement which has lost none of the fine qualities which has characterized it in years gone by. There are many phases of the current aspects of this problem, but I will refer to only one or two in which the Government of Ontario is concerned.

One of the first things that came to my notice in the Department of Agriculture, as head of the Colonization Department, was the fact that much of our money spent on immigration was abortive. We were bringing to this Province young men from the age of 21 years upwards. After staying a year or two they disappeared; they had been just waiting for an opportunity to slip across the line. I felt that it was a waste of money and effort to bring over such young men, when we knew what they had in mind. We therefore decided to expend our energies in other directions. I might explain that this Province has its own Immigration Department. We work under the Federal Government at Ottawa, and we specialize in certain classes of immigration, so that we conduct our work direct with the British Government, with the consent and under the authority of the Federal Government.

Now nearly two years ago we decided to undertake a definite policy of bringing over boys of the ages of 16, 17, and 18, from the British Isles and settling them on farms in this Province. It was quite understood that they would not have any preliminary farm experience, but it was felt that if they were settled with an individual farmer they would soon learn the ways of the country and grow up to be very useful citizens. I am glad to say that this plan has worked out most satisfactorily. Since it was started there have been upwards of one thousand boys placed under this particular scheme and the percentage of misfits, which are always bound to occur in such circumstances, has been gratifyingly small.

One of the things that has always impressed me was the splendid part which the Barnardo boys played during the great World War. (Hear, hear, and applause.) I think that was one of the finest tributes to what "Empire" means that could be found. I have known hundreds of those boys, and I have known communities in Ontario, and I have known communities in Ontario, and in sections where recruiting was very slow it was noteworthy how those Barnardo boys came to the recruiting office and offered themselves. It was a wonderful tribute—(applause)—because, remember, they were largely boys who had been picked off the streets of Old London and other cities. When you saw those boys acting in that way, you knew that the British Empire, the Motherland, meant a great deal to them.

Our scheme was to secure a better class of boys than we had been getting. One of the most pitiable conditions in Britain to-day is that thousands of boys are growing up to manhood with no position offered to them, with nothing to which to look forward—boys of good breed, with good parents, with fine physique; and it seems to me that Canada could not possibly make a better investment than to bring over as quickly as possible those boys of tender years. (Hear, hear.) We were able to make an agreement with the Overseas Settlement Board by which those boys are being brought over. We bring them to Vimy Ridge Farm of 300 acres, near Guelph, and we give them a little period of training, and then put them in homes with good farmers who will train and help them. We are trustees for those boys; we keep their wages, what is left over after they have supplied their needs in the way of clothing, etc. We inspect the homes in which they are placed, because we are not going to allow greedy farmers to exploit the labour of those boys. (Hear, hear.) We want a fair proposition where both the boy and the farmer will benefit.

I may say that one of the difficult problems in the average farm to-day is that the revenue of small farms is not enough to pay $500 or $600 for a man. A boy is placed out on a one-year contract at a minimum wage. The boy is given a good home, and we try to select men who will treat them kindly and play the game, so that the boy has a good home. The boy is given $10 a month during the first year; after that the agreement is between the farmer and the boy. I am pleased to say that this plan is working admirably.

Speaking of Links of Empire, of course we are always trying to keep Ontario to the front. In going to the Old Country you are struck with the fact that there is very little said about Ontario in any of the literature that is being sent out by our Federal Government ; it is largely about the West—Alberta and Saskatchewan. Of course we are all anxious to see those provinces built up, but we do like to hear a little about Ontario. (Hear, hear.) That is why we are more or less doing our own advertising, and conducting a lot of our own activities direct. One of the things that struck me in the Old Country was the fact that I saw so little about Ontario, but I saw in the public press fool items which were, to say the least, irritating; they seemed to be trying to put Canada in a poor light. I have no doubt—in fact we have cases in point proving that those articles were inspired. There is a keen competition in these days. I will say no more on that subject; but about a year age we felt that it would be in the interests of this province to issue our own Bulletin. I think that in Mr. Noxon, our Agent-General, we have the very finest advocate of this Province in the Motherland. He is a man we are proud of, and as the Minister having charge of that office I wish to say he is a man with whom I have had very pleasant relations, a man with whom it is a pleasure to work, and one of the most efficient representatives, I believe, that Canada has ever had. I say "Canada."

We have now what is known as the "Ontario Bulletin," and it is full of news about Ontario. It is published quarterly. We have just received the third issue. We send those magazines wherever we think the publicity will do us good. This issue of January 28th has an article by Hon. Charles McCrae. There is no advertising in these issues except what relates to our own departments. The object is to spread helpful propaganda about this Province, and disseminate knowledge.

Here is a letter from one of the boys. We have a lot of such letters :

> "Dearest Mother, Father, Sisters, and Brothers,—I received your letters this morning, It is lovely weather out here, 80 in the shade, and I am getting as brown as a berry. I have been working out on the land to-day, ploughing and harrowing, which is very fine work to do. I have been on the farm three weeks to-morrow. Next week I get ten dollars to save up, and at the end of the year I shall have a hundred and twenty dollars. Dear Mother, I am getting on very well with the people ; they are very nice, and they treat me in the very best way. They have a six-valve wireless set. Dearest Father, thank you very much for the letters, which I received with great joy. Write to me as often as you can. By the time this letter reaches you and, I shall expect to have that photo of you and dear mother. The orchards are looking fine with their bloom ; there are apple trees, plum trees, and cherry trees. There are some goslings coming out next week, some little turkeys, too. The summer harvesting will soon be on now, that is when they get in the hay. The mangels and roots are all planted. All we have to put in now is a little millet next week, then I guess we have to get to the hoeing. There is a kitchen garden, with peas, beans, raspberries, black currants, and everything nice, especially the water melons. Can you imagine me diving into one ? Remember me to all the boys and friends that ask after me, and tell them I am O.K."

(Applause.)

We have thousands of such letters. We all know there are difficulties that will present themselves, and there are misfits who will get over here in spite of all the care we can exercise—boys who would not make good anywhere; but I may say that the percentage of such boys is very small.

Many of these boys are no doubt actuated by the same spirit of adventure which has characterized the race from which they came. You might be interested in the story of our experience with a couple of boys, who illustrate this point. They came out in the fall of 1926, and apparently when they were together in the early part of the trip, and particularly at Vimy Ridge Farm, where they are received on arrival, they decided that after spending the winter in Canada they would leave for Sunny California. After a short time together they were placed on farms a few miles apart, and then they carried on their plans by means of correspondence. One of the boys was known by that fine old name of Socrates. The other boy answered to the prosaic name of Jack, but was sometimes known as Kismet. As time went on they became more impatient for their adventure, but I will give you the story as it is contained in their own correspondence. In the course of a letter "To my dear Socrates," Jack writes as follows :

> "Well Soc., you are not a fool and I am not. We both have plausible tongues and I even venture to say, Soc., that the two of us in partnership would make the finest adventurous combination that Vimy Ridge has yet seen. Stanley would have made a good partner, but he was mostly talk, eh ? So the question of what we are to do in case of a failure to board a southern train disappears. Some border city should provide a living and a fat living too, for two adventurers who have nothing to lose and everything to gain. And when spring comes we could continue our travels considerably richer by our stay. Now Soc., I have a hunch we could do it smiling. Both of us are acclimatized and slightly hardened, so what ! I'm willing to risk it if you are. An inventory of my possessions which would prove useful. At present $8 in cash, a silver watch and a gold chain, a silver cigarette case, a thick overcoat, a pair of rubber boots, heavy underwear, thick shirt and a plausible tongue."

To this Socrates, who incidentally was only about sixteen years of age, replied as follows :

> "Of course you understand that my whole soul longs for your pleasant companionship in the sun-kissed land of the new Mexico. Should hoboing prove impracticable, it will be a great disappointment to me, but nothing will ever persuade me to endure the disgrace of recapture and possible deportation. Never ! a thousand times no ! Sooner suicide than that.
>
> "Pulling together through all kinds of weather we will carve a path through life.
>
> "So be it Kismet. Call on me at all times. I am always prepared for adventure. Some people like to sit at home and read about it, but you and I are of a sterner mould."

(Laughter.)

To this stirring call Jack replied :

> "And so, Socrates, the stage is set. For good or evil we will go on with it. . . . . This is going to be a great event in our lives, Soc., and I know it is for the best. Money will come fast and quick, and maybe next Christmas we can afford a holiday to the Old Land. Adventurers both."

As has happened with older people, writing letters was the cause of the undoing of the boys. The letters fell into the hands of the employer of one of the boys. He turned them over to our officers, and when one of the boys arrived at the meeting-place in Toronto he was taken in hand by our man. The other boy, who evidently saw this but was not seen by our man, realized that the game was up, and he took the next train back to his job, and has been doing well ever since. The other boy, after being reasoned with quietly, found he would be satisfied with a less adventurous life. He was again placed on a farm. A year is now past. He is on the same farm, and has just made a contract for the second year. Thus ends this romance, but it shows that the spirit of adventure is still strong in the British race, and that settlement may be counted on to be, as in the past, one of the most important links of Empire.

SENTIMENT.

And now we come to the last link in my brief chain, the link without which all other links are weak and unavailing—the link of Sentiment. This has been described as the silken cord which binds with the strength of steel. Unless Science and Settlement, trade and commerce, and all other factors minister to and are supplemented by the bonds of sentiment, the Empire cannot endure. True, there must be practical ties, material bonds, but sentiment takes account of more than these. It considers tangible and intangible matters, such as traditions, ideals, the Flag and the Throne. In a speech a few ago in London, in discussing the prospective meeting of the Empire Parliamentary Association, which is to take place in Canada this fall, Mr. Ramsey MacDonald, Labour leader, made statements which emphasize the point I am endeavouring to make.

"He doubted very much if by mere law or statute, or by mere formal agreement in the devising of formula, they were able to do this work successfully. They came back finally to that subtle, intangible, spiritual thing in our common pride and common inheritance. It was a tradition; it was an appreciation of what we were and what we had been. He believed that was the bond that was surviving all the tests put upon it."

In this speech the Labour leader mentioned the fact that he had, at some time or other, visited every part of the British Empire. I could not help thinking that possibly that fact explained why he was able, in spite of the influence with which he is surrounded, to maintain a point of view on Empire matters such as is reflected in the words quoted. There is no doubt that the interchange of visits, the maintenance of personal touch, constitutes one of the best means of developing a proper sentiment. It is good to know that these are increasing, and this Club is serving a splendid purpose in supplying a forum through which distinguished visitors from other parts of the Empire may come in contact with large numbers of our citizens. It is good to know that the Honourable Mr. Amery, Secretary of State for the Dominions, will be here in a short time. These visits have a fine effect.

But undoubtedly the greatest Ambassador of Empire in the world to-day is His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. He has visited all parts of the Empire, and has been in Canada several times. His winsome personality and democratic bearing have had a wonderful effect in constituting a personal bond between the Throne and citizens of the Empire in outlying Dominions and in the Motherland. His visits have done more than this. His speeches have proclaimed a broad and sound view of Empire which cannot be too often emphasized. Did time permit it would be of interest to quote from many of the addresses which he has made at different points, which would further make clear the phases I am emphasizing. It may be sufficient, however, to quote one paragraph. On his return from his tour of 1919 he made the following statement in his address at the Mansion House in London :

> "I should like to try to tell you what I feel I have learned. In the first place I have come back with a much clearer idea of what is meant by the British Empire, or, as it is often more appropriately called, the British Commonwealth. The old idea of Empire handed down from Greece and Rome was that of a mother-country surrounded by daughter-states which owed allegiance to her. Now, er left that obsolete idea behind a long time ago. Our Empire implies a partnership of free nations, nations living under the same system of law, pursuing the same democratic aims, and actuated by the same human ideals. The British Empire is thus something far grander than an Empire in the old sense of the term."

This shows, I submit, that he is not only an Ambassador of Empire but an Ambassador of an Empire based on the broadest and most democratic ideals. The importance of this kind of Empire being developed cannot be over-emphasized. If we would fully appreciate this we have only to look back at what happened a little over one hundred years ago. There has recently been an incident in Chicago which has created a great deal of amusement outside the borders of that city The spectacle of a man, who occupies the position of Mayor, trying to make an issue of what was done by George III over one hundred and fifty years ago has only proved ludicrous. He has, however, served to emphasize the change in conditions, and one leading American paper, not long ago, made the remark that if George III had been actuated by the same ideals and the same spirit which are exemplified by George V to-day, the American colonies would never have broken away. We should, therefore, realize the great part which the Prince of Wales is playing in interpreting the Empire to the Throne and the Throne to the Empire.

To such an Empire we are happy to acknowledge the ties of Science and Settlement and Sentiment. In the strengthening of these ties each may play a part, because through the maintenance of these ties there is safeguarded to all of us the maximum of freedom and of security, under which each, in his own way, may attain in some measure to health, wealth and happiness. (Loud applause.)

SIR WILLIAM HEARST voiced the thanks of the Club to the speaker for his thoughtful, masterly, educative and patriotic address.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

REPORT OF THE ANNUAL MEETING

The Annual Meeting was held on the 12th of January, 1928, in the King Edward Hotel, Toronto, immediately at the close of the weekly luncheon. The President occupied the chair.

The Annual Report, presented by the Secretary, Mr. H. G. Stapells, M.A., was as follows :—"This meeting brings to a close another successful year. I believe, it can be said with confidence, that the Speeches delivered at the luncheons during 1927 have been of that high order for which this Club is so justly noted. This will be reflected in the added interest and importance of the Year Book, which is now in the hands of the publishers, and which will be mailed to each member in due course."

On motion of the Secretary, seconded by Mr. A. O. Hogg, the report was adopted.

The Report of the Nominating Committee was presented by Rev. Dr. R. N. Burns, on whose motion, seconded by Mr. A. O. Hogg, it was adopted as follows :

Mr. Robert Fennell	President.
Colonel Henry Brock	First Vice-President.
Mr. C. A. C. Jennings	Second Vice-President
Colonel C. W. Rowley	Third Vice-President.
Mr. H. G. Stapells, M.A.	Secretary-Treasurer.

K. J. Dunstan
E. H. Wilkinson
S. J. Frame
Hugh S. Eayrs
Charles V. Syrett
William Tyrell
Col. Baptist Johnston
R. P. Baker
F. B. Fetherstonhaugh
J. D. Spence
W. J. Darby
Horace Hunter
H. T. Jamieson
Maj. T. Crawford Brown
Colonel B. O. Hooper
Charles P. Tisdall
G. C. Bateman

Chosen by the Past-Presidents : Dr. R. N. Burns, F. J. Coombs, and Colonel A. E. Kirkpatrick.

The above-named, together with the immediate past-president, Colonel Alexander Fraser, constitute the governing body of the Club for 1928.

The finances of the Club are in a healthy condition, as is shown by the following statement :—

RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS FOR THE YEAR ENDED 31st DECEMBER, 1927,

Receipts.

Balance brought forward, 1st January, 1927			$ 140.91
Income :			
Annual Fees :			
Resident	$3,946.00		
Non-Resident	89.00		
		$4,035.00	
Interest on Bank Account		31.39	
Sale of Year Book		4.00	
Miscellaneous, including collections for Diamond Jubilee Float		518.40	
			4,588.79
			$4,729.70

Payments.

Expenditure—General Expenses :			
Salary	$1,200.00		
Printing and Stationery, including cost of Year Book	1,585.95		
Telephone and Telegraph	54.24		
Office Expense	19.10		
Travelling and entertainment	442.59		
Reporting	112.00		
Postage	456.92		
Miscellaneous	31.90		
		$3,902.70	
Guests and Luncheons		532.79	
Diamond Jubilee Float		250.00	
			$4,685.49
Cash on hand, 31st December, 1927			$ 44.21

CERTIFICATE.

We have audited the Cash Account of the Empire Club of Canada, Toronto, for the year ended 31st December, 1927, and we hereby certify that the attached statement of Receipts and Payments is correct according to the best of our information and the explanations given to us, and as shown by the books and records of the Club as at 31st December, 1927.

Reported by H. T. JAMIESON & COMPANY,
Chartered Accountants. *Honorary Auditors.*

Before installing Mr. Fennell to the office of President, Colonel Fraser said: It has been customary to ask the retiring president for a valedictory speech. I do not wish to trespass on your time at length and shall only express my gratitude for the support given me by the Executive Committee and the members of the Club. I appreciate most cordially their assistance by which I was enabled to carry on, perhaps, with fair success. The Secretary has been simply invaluable. (Hear, hear.) You have shown your confidence by re-electing him. In the coming year his labour will be much lightened and the interests of the Club advanced if your support be given to him even more generous than in the past.

It is now my pleasure to call upon my successor, Mr. Robert Fennell, to come forward. It has been suggested that I emphasize one fact which has become a tradition in the Club—that first Vice-Presidents are not in line for the Presidency by virtue of their office. There have been very few exceptions to this practice. It has always been considered by the Club that any office within its gift is a sufficient recognition for a year of service, and that occupancy of an office does not in any way give what might be considered a vested right to promotion. Nevertheless, in the case of Mr. Fennell, there could be no question; he is not president-elect to-day because he was vice-president yesterday, but because of invaluable services, and because of his outstanding fitness for the position which he is now about to occupy. (Hear, hear, and applause.) Mr. Fennell, I have great pleasure in asking you to exchange seats with me. (Applause.)

Mr. Fennell having taken the chair, said: Gentlemen, were I to take the time necessary adequately to express my appreciation of this honour, I would immediately give you cause to regret the appointment (Laughter.) I have only this to say—that your Executive Committee for next year cannot make a success without your absolute assistance and co-operation. There are those of us who know, possibly better than others, that there is a direct relationship between the average weekly attendance at these luncheons and success over any given period. We are in very keen, though very friendly, competition with other organizations for outstanding speakers, and the club which can boast of the highest weekly average attendance has a decided advantage over all other organizations. Therefore I ask you to give to the incoming Executive the assistance and co-operation which you have given to the two past Executive Committees. (Applause.)

Dr. P. E. Doolittle moved a hearty vote of thanks to the retiring officers. This motion was seconded and carried amid applause.

APPENDIX II

HONORARY PRESIDENTS OF THE EMPIRE CLUB OF CANADA, 1903-1927.

1903–1912. Rt. Hon. Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, G.C.M.G., LL.D., D.C.L.*
1913. Field Marshall H.R.H. The Duke of Connaught and Strathearn, K.G., G.C.M.G.

PAST PRESIDENTS:

1903–04.
1904–05. Brig.-General James Mason.*
1905–06. Reverend William Clark, D.D., LL.D., D.C.L.*
1906–07. Mr. J. P. Murray.
1907–08. Mr. J. F. M. Stewart, B.A.
1908–09. Mr. D. J. Goggin, M.A., D.C.L.
1909–10. Mr. Elias Clouse, M.D.
1910–11. Mr. J. Castell Hopkins, F.S.S.*
1911–12. Mr. F. B. Fetherstonhaugh, K.C.
1912–13. Right Reverend James F. Sweeny, M.A., D.D., D.C.L.
1913–14. Mr. Justice James Craig.
1914–15. Lieut.-Colonel R. J. Stuart.
1915–16. Mr. Albert Ham, Mus. Doc.
1916–17. Mr. James Black Perry.
1917–18. Mr. Norman Sommerville, M.A., K.C.
1918. Mr. F. J. Coombs.
1919. Mr. R. A. Stapells.
1920. Mr. Arthur Hewitt.
1921. Brig.-General C. H. Mitchell, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O. LL.D
1922. Sir William Hearst, K.C.M.G., K.C., LL.D.
1923. Mr. Ellis H. Wilkinson.
1924. Mr. William Brooks.
1925. Rev. Dr. R. N. Burns.
1926. Colonel A. E. Kirkpatrick, Hon., A.D.C.
1927. Colonel Alexander Fraser, LL.D., A.D.C.

HONORARY LIFE MEMBERS:

1904. Rt. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain.*
1910. Rt. Hon. Sir George W. Ross, LL.D.*
1920. Colonel Alexander Fraser, M.A., LL.D., Litt.D.
1924. Mr. D. J. Goggin, M.A., D.C.L.

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*Deceased.

APPENDIX III

CONSTITUTION

INSTITUTED 1903

THE OBJECT OF THE CLUB IS THE ADVANCEMENT OF THE INTERESTS OF CANADA AND A UNITED EMPIRE

Organization of the Club and Branches

Art. 1.—(1) The organization shall be called the Empire Club of Canada.

(2) Branches of the Club may be established with the authority of the Executive Committee, and subject to such conditions and regulations as may from time to time be decided upon by the Club in Toronto.

(3) A committee may be appointed under the provisions of sub-section 2, article 1, for the establishment of branches of the Club, and the word "Unit" shall denote a Branch.

Classes of Members

Art. 2.—The Membership of the Club shall be open to any man of the full age of eighteen years who is a British Subject and shall consist of

(*a*) Active Resident Members,
(*b*) Non-Resident Members,
(*c*) Life Members,
(*d*) Honorary Members.

Active Resident Members and Non-Resident Members

Art. 3.—(1) Candidates for Membership shall be proposed and seconded by two members of the Club in good standing, and shall be elected by a two-thirds majority of those present at any meeting of the Executive Committee.

(2) Active resident members shall pay an annual fee of $4.00 and non-resident members $3.00, this fee

to include membership obtained after October 15th in any year till December 31st of the following year. Payment of such fee shall entitle each member to receive a copy of the Year Book. No member in arrears for fees or dues shall be considered in good standing or be eligible for office.

Life Members

Art. 4.—(1) Life Members, not exceeding ten in any one year, may be elected from time to time, at an open meeting of the Club, upon the recommendation of the Executive Committee. Provided, however, that Ministers of the Federal Parliament and Premiers of the different Provinces of the Dominion of Canada may be eligible for election at any time, even though their election may cause the number of Life Members to exceed ten in one year.

(2) Life Members shall pay a fee of $50.00 in one sum.

Honorary Members.

Art. 5.—(1) Honorary Members may be elected upon the recommendation of the Executive Committee, and at a general meeting of the Club.

(2) Honorary Members shall be exempt from the payment of fees, but shall not have the privilege of voting or holding office.

Officers to be Elected

Art. 6.—(1) The officers of the Club shall consist of an Honorary President; a President; First, Second and Third Vice-President; a Treasurer, a Secretary, or a Secretary-Treasurer; and seventeen other members, all of whom shall be elected by ballot. These members together with the officers before mentioned, shall constitute the Executive Committee, and shall hold office throughout the calendar year. All Past Presidents shall constitute an Advisory Council under the Chairmanship of the immediate Past President, and such

Advisory Council shall elect annually three members, who, together with the retiring President, shall be the ex-officio members of the Executive Committee for the ensuing year.

Election of Officers

(2) The Election of Officers of the Club shall take place at a general meeting of the members, to be held not later than December 15th of each year, at a date to be decided upon by the Executive Committee, and this meeting shall be deemed to be the Annual Meeting. A committee to nominate the officers for the new year shall be appointed at the meeting next preceding such Annual Meeting, due notice of such meeting to be given to all members in good standing, and such committee shall report to the Annual Meeting; provided that no member shall be nominated to any office unless and until he has given notice in writing that he consents to such nomination and will act if elected to the position for which he has been nominated.

(3) Two Auditors shall be elected at each Annual Meeting.

Standing Committees

(4) Standing Committees shall be appointed as follows :—

(*a*) Finance Committee.
(*b*) Speakers' Committee.
(*c*) Membership Committee.
(*d*) Constitution Committee.
(*e*) Luncheon and Reception Committee.
(*f*) Publicity Committee.
(*g*) Royal Colonial Institute Committee.

Filling of Vacancies Among Officers

Art. 7.—In the event of an office becoming vacant by death, resignation, or otherwise, the vacancy thus caused shall be filled by the Executive Committee and the person so chosen shall hold office until the next Annual Meeting.

Duties of Officers

Art. 8.—The duties of the officers shall be those customary to such positions in similar organizations.

Holding of Meetings

Art. 9.—(1) The Club shall hold general meetings weekly from October to May, both inclusive, in each twelve months with such intermissions as from time to time may be decided upon.

(2) At the Annual Meeting a report of the year's proceedings and work shall be submitted by the President, and this report shall be accompanied by an interim report from the Treasurer. As the financial year does not end until December 31st, the Treasurer shall, in addition to the interim report presented at the Annual Meeting, present an audited statement of the finances of the Club for the full financial year at a regular meeting of the Club held during the month of January.

Notice of Meetings.

Art. 10.—Written or printed notices of all meetings shall be given to the members of the Club. Such notices shall be sufficient if addressed to the members, and deposited post paid in the post office in Toronto.

Quorum at Meetings

Art. 11.—Fifteen members in good standing shall constitute a quorum at any meeting of the Club, general, annual or special and the presiding officer shall have a casting vote. Six members shall form a quorum of the Executive Committee.

Limitation of Business at General Meetings

Art. 12.—No business other than the hearing of the addresses and notices of motion shall be introduced at any meeting of the Club, unless it has been submitted to the Executive Committee and received its approval.

Calling of Special Meetings

Art. 13.—Meetings of the Executive Committee shall be called by the President, or on a requisition signed by three of its members. Special meetings of the Club may be called by the President, and shall be called by him on a requisition signed by twelve members and stating the object of the meeting. This object shall be stated in the notice calling the special meeting.

Financial Year

Art. 14.—The Financial Year shall be the same as the calendar year, viz.: January first to December thirty-first.

Amendments to Constitution

Art. 15.—This Constitution may be amended at the Annual Meeting, or at a special meeting called for that purpose, subject to a two-thirds majority vote of the members present.